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SCHOOL LIFE

**March
1940**

**VOLUME 23
NUMBER 6**



**OFFICIAL ORGAN
OF THE
U. S. OFFICE
OF EDUCATION
FEDERAL
SECURITY
AGENCY
WASHINGTON, D. C.**

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[SCHOOL LIFE is indexed in Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature, and Education Index. It is recommended in the American Library Association's "Periodicals for the Small Library."]

WRITE

The U. S. Office of Education,
Federal Security Agency,
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SCHOOL LIFE

Official Organ of the U. S. Office of Education

Volume XXV

MARCH 1940

Number 6

SCHOOL LIFE is published monthly (except in August and September) during the school year, by the U. S. Office of Education, Federal Security Agency.

Its purpose is to present current information concerning progress and trends in education; report upon research and other activities conducted by the U. S. Office of Education; announce new publications of the Office, as well as important publications of other Government agencies; and to give kindred services.

The Congress of the United States, in 1867, established the Office of Education to "collect such statistics and facts as shall show the condition and progress of education in the several States and Territories"; to "diffuse such information as shall aid in the establishment and maintenance of efficient school systems"; and "otherwise promote the cause of education throughout the country." SCHOOL LIFE serves toward carrying out these purposes. Its printing has been approved by the Director of the Budget.

The subscription rate is \$1 per year in advance; to foreign countries in which the mailing frank of the United States is not recognized, \$1.50. Club rate: For orders of 100 copies or more to be sent in bulk to one address within the United States, the Superintendent of Documents allows a discount of 25 percent. Subscriptions may also be entered through magazine dealers. Subscription orders with remittances should be sent to the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C.

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Publication offices:

U. S. OFFICE OF EDUCATION
FEDERAL SECURITY AGENCY
Washington, D. C.

Editorial

Protection of Civil Liberties

RECENTLY the Hon. Paul V. McNutt, Federal Security Administrator, addressed the Lawyers' Guild in Washington, on the subject, The Lawyers' Part in Democracy. I am sure that the message pertaining to our civil liberties will be appreciated by the teaching profession as well as by the legal profession, and for that reason the following excerpt from his address is presented:

"No account of the present responsibilities of the bar would be complete which fails to lay stress upon the sacred duty of the protection of civil liberties. This duty is the peculiar obligation of the legal profession because it is through the misconception of law and its maladministration that the most flagrant violations of civil liberties occur. At such a time as this, it is more than ordinarily important to the preservation of our national life. During times of crises, it is the more necessary to protect the individual liberties because there is the more temptation to ignore them.

"Every national emergency puts a strain upon the democratic process. At the heart of that process is the principle of free speech and free political action. The strain becomes greatest during war. This is not difficult to understand.

A Price Too High

"Those charged with responsibility for the nation's welfare are necessarily intent, above everything else, on winning the war. A nation in a death struggle cannot be expected to be over-technical about rights of an individual. It must not be forgotten, however, that victory on the battlefield would exact a price too high were it obtained by the collapse of democracy itself. In facing the difficult and tragic problems of the present and the immediate future, America must bear in mind that involvement in international conflict carries with it the inevitable implication of a suppression of civil liberties. Such considerations make it all the more necessary for us to guard our peace to the utmost, for in doing so, we are safeguarding our democracy. I do not suggest that America cannot withstand a world war with its democracy intact. It has done so in the past, and I feel that the Nation's passion for the democratic way of life insures that it can do so again. The warning cannot be repeated too often, however, that in such an event we must take every precaution against the deterioration of the democratic structures which we have built on the cornerstone of the free exchange of ideas and the free casting of the ballot. Lawyers, more than any other group, should recognize and appreciate the extent of this problem.

Three Distinct Capacities

"The bar must cherish the ideal in three distinct capacities. First, the private practitioner is charged with the responsibility of protecting rights of the individual client. Second, the government lawyer must be ever respectful of the rights of the citizen in his relations with government. Finally, the profession as a whole must at all times have an acute awareness of the status of civil liberties throughout the Nation. It must assume a collective responsibility for the rights of the citizen.

"These are a few of the major responsibilities of the bar as I see them. To discharge them well requires ability, hard work, and a devotion to the public service which is second to that of no other group of citizens. These are contributions which no class can make so effectively as can the legal profession. They constitute a challenge to the best brains and the highest idealism of the Nation. As a member of the bar, I have every confidence that the challenge will be accepted."

John W. Studenaker
U. S. Commissioner of Education.

This Month's Authors Say:

The question, Should Federal funds for education be earmarked for special purposes? raises the issue of the price that should be paid for Federal aid to education. In the writer's judgment, the earmarking of funds entails too great a price in terms of sacrifices of our traditional American educational policies of local control of education.

* * *

The present educational program is inadequate both with respect to the amount and quality. Thousands of boys and girls of high-school age live in communities where there is no secondary school opportunity and no provision is made for them to get secondary schooling elsewhere. Not only is the amount of school opportunity available inadequate, but the present program is also conspicuously weak in several areas.

* * *

The mere finding of defects gets us nowhere. We have merely wasted our time and public funds if nothing comes of it. If we do not feel that something must be done, in each case, we get into ways of finding too many and inconsequential ailments. Our aim, at the time of examination, should be the treatment of 100 percent of the defects found and 100 percent treatment of those defects. I am using the word "treatment" rather than "correction" because most defects cannot be removed and some require persistent efforts for their improvement.

* * *

The cooperation of the schools and colleges of the country and of the State departments of education has contributed greatly to the efforts of the Civilian Conservation Corps to organize and continually strengthen its program and to enable that program to take its place in coordination with the other major youth-training institutions of the Nation.

* * *

By the end of the elementary school level the child has developed the ability to speak or write a paragraph free from gross errors. Such a paragraph may represent a social-studies report, a contribution to an assembly program, a letter, a section in a school newspaper, or a summary of a school activity.



On This Month's Cover

SCHOOL LIFE expresses appreciation to the Federal Bureau of Investigation, for use of the picture on this month's cover page. It is a class of special agents receiving training at the Federal Bureau in the United States Department of Justice.

Convention Calendar

AMERICAN ACADEMY OF POLITICAL AND SOCIAL SCIENCE. *Philadelphia, Pa., April 12 and 13.*

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION FOR HEALTH, PHYSICAL EDUCATION, AND RECREATION. *Chicago, Ill., April 24-27.*

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS. *St. Louis, Mo., April 23-25.*

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF DENTAL SCHOOLS. *Philadelphia, Pa., March 15-17.*

ASSOCIATION FOR CHILDHOOD EDUCATION—NURSERY-KINDERGARTEN. *Milwaukee, Wis., April 29 to May 3.*

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE DEANS AND REGISTRARS IN NEGRO SCHOOLS. *Langston, Okla., March 6-8.*

NATIONAL CATHOLIC EDUCATION ASSOCIATION. *Kansas City, Mo., March 27-29.*

SECONDARY EDUCATION BOARD. *New York, N. Y., March 1 and 2.*

"Movie" Audience Behavior

William Lewin, chairman of the committee on motion pictures of the department of secondary teachers of the National Education Association, has sent in the following "decologue" based on discussions and suggestions at Weequahic High School, Newark, N. J. "The project," Mr. Lewin says, "is in line with the aims of our committee on motion pictures."

A DECALOGUE OF AUDIENCE BEHAVIOR

Based on Student Discussions and Suggestions

1. Remember that a student movie goer represents his school and that, by his behavior, he can build or break down the good name of the school.

2. Remember, when responding to the appeals made by a picture, to keep your enthusiasm within reasonable bounds.

3. Remember, if you wish to show disapproval of a film, that the decent thing to do is to remain silent and to reserve your comments until you can speak or write to the manager of the theater. Careful expression of opinion will prove more effective than acts of disturbance at a performance.

4. Remember that you can best express your disapproval of unruly behavior on the part of your friends in the theater by firmly refusing to join in their acts of disturbance. Speak quietly to those who are boisterous. By being quiet of voice you will accomplish more than by being aggressive.

5. Remember that there are other people in a movie audience besides yourself and your friends, that they have paid to see and hear the program just as you have, and that they are entitled to peace, quiet, and respect during the performance.

6. Remember this golden rule of fair play in the treatment of furniture and equipment in a theater: Treat chairs, rugs, and other furnishings as you would have your own treated by visitors in your home. Vandalism is one of the lowest forms of behavior.

7. Remember that, in case of danger of fire, self-control is of prime importance. The danger is not so much from fire as from injury due to panic and rushing to get out.

8. Remember that, once you are outside of the theater, an expression of opinion regarding pictures that you have seen is much to be desired. Make your comments on as high a plane of thought as possible.

9. Remember that, in discussing pictures, you should listen closely to the comments of others, for the art of conversation depends on attentive listening.

10. In general, remember that the success of our American democracy depends on independent critical thinking, on self-restraint in crowds, on the exercise of imagination regarding the consequences of the mob spirit, and on adherence to the highest ideals of fair play in public conduct.

Adult Education

The fifteenth annual meeting of the American Association for Adult Education will be held in New York City, May 20-23, with headquarters at the Hotel Astor. The Democratic Way: An Educational Process will be the theme of the meeting.

There will be two types of sessions: Large meetings, open to the public, at which men and women of national importance will speak on various aspects of the general theme; and section meetings—small working conferences—on a wide range of subjects, where reports of specific projects in adult education will be made. The tentative program provides for 8 general sessions, 40 section meetings, a banquet, and 2 luncheon sessions.

Members of the committee in charge of the meeting are: George V. Denny, Jr., president of the Town Hall, chairman; Harold Benjamin, dean of the College of Education, University of Maryland; Edmund deS. Brunner, professor of education, Teachers College, Columbia University; Austin H. MacCormick, commissioner of correction, New York City; Harry A. Overstreet, emeritus professor of philosophy, The College of the City of New York; Everett Dean Martin, peripatetic lecturer in social philosophy; and Morse A. Cartwright, director of the American Association for Adult Education.

For Crippled Children

The Easter seals of the National Society for Crippled Children are on sale for the seventh consecutive year from February 24 to March 24, 1940, the proceeds of the sale being used for services to crippled children. The National Society represents and promotes all phases of activity for crippled children.

A Modern English Program

by Helen K. Mackintosh, Specialist in Elementary Education



How Important is English?

In discussing a modern English program for modern schools, it is necessary to stand back and get a long view of the problem of English teaching in the light of current standards. It may surprise some people to know that the average individual probably speaks the equivalent of a book a week. In a recent publication of the Educational Policies Commission the statement is made that speech is the basis of 90 percent of present-day communication. It is necessary to remind ourselves of the importance of the telephone, of talking pictures, and of the radio in the everyday life of boys and girls, and men and women in this year 1940.

Each individual has a series of vocabularies: Reading, speaking, writing, and hearing. Of these the reading vocabulary is probably the most extensive. The speaking vocabulary of the average person is much more limited than his reading vocabulary, and his writing vocabulary is the most meager of all. Within the past few years the hearing vocabulary has come to take a place of almost equal importance with the reading vocabulary. For the teacher of English this hearing vocabulary has special significance. Motion-picture stars, radio announcers, and radio performers tend to set standards for both pronunciation and enunciation so far as children are concerned. Teachers need to be aware, also, of the changing standards of correctness in both speaking and writing. A few years ago an inquiry by specialists brought in a verdict of "not guilty" in the case of 45 English expressions previously condemned by grammarians.

Common Carrier

In the light of the facts presented here, the recent description of English as the "common carrier" for all school experiences, in addition to its own major job, may well serve as a basis for discussion. That English is, realistically speaking, such a "common carrier" is evidenced by a survey of the activities of a typical elementary school. Suppose that the reader can look in on each room in succession and note the activity actually in progress: In the kindergarten, children are planning an excursion to a farm; the first grade has organized itself into a series of reading clubs which not only read from books but make comments on the reading that has been done. In the next group children are preparing for an assembly based upon all the things that they have read, seen, and constructed in relation to a study of community life. A third group is



English as a part of social living.

trying its hand at creative writing; they have had many experiences in listening to poems and are now trying to put their own thoughts and feelings on paper. As a basis for securing first-hand information about pioneer life in their community, children of the fourth grade are writing letters to early settlers asking for information, for an interview, or for a visit to the school. All the work of editing the school newspaper has fallen upon the shoulders of fifth-grade children. Their room is a beehive of activity as editors of various departments work with their groups in assembling material for the "dummy." The sixth-grade group is discussing ways of making their reports of health experiments graphic for the program to which they have invited parents. Class discussion of a social-studies problem which has its basis in their own community is being carried on in the seventh grade. Eighth graders have written an original play and have reached the point where they are discussing the selection of characters from their own group.

If these illustrations may be considered as typical, an analysis shows first, that both spoken and written language crisscross repeatedly in these situations; and second, that the language abilities, such as conversation, use of the telephone, reports, letter writing, outlines, story telling, announcements, talks, and speeches are all woven into the pattern at various points and in different relationships.

Those skills which are termed the mechanics of speaking and writing are a functional part of these abilities. In viewing skills as an integral part of activities the teacher is organizing her thinking around four steps which should characterize good method in the teaching of English in a modern school program. These steps, in brief, may be summed up by the active verbs: socialize, produce, analyze, and practice. As described, the activities present the stages indicated as "socialize" and "produce." As an outgrowth of these periods, teachers and children should analyze evidences of need for further practice on skills and can then isolate each separate skill for motivated attack.

In Relation to School Day

By use of the foregoing description and its analysis as a background, it is possible to consider further some of the problems which today's English teacher should meet face to face. The analysis has shown that English is closely tied in or related to all activities of the school. It is interesting to note at present that there is a trend toward thinking of the school day or school week not in terms of compartmentalized periods for each individual subject but, instead, as divided into areas of experience such as language arts, social studies, exact science, health, and fine arts. Although English has a specialized function in the area called language arts, it is the

common carrier for the work that is done in each of the other fields here listed. In social studies it is the vehicle which provides for setting up problems, contributing personal experiences and information, organizing and recording learning from books and from many other sources, carrying on discussions of problems, and developing summaries of high points. In a similar way the other four areas of experience can be analyzed to show the importance of English. If the method of approach is reversed, English is taken as the center to which in a similar way other fields of experience are related. In conversation, for example, not merely what is said is of importance, but the manner in which it is said, the voice of the individual, the facial expression, the ability to calculate the effect of what is said upon the hearer or upon the audience are elements in the situation. Social experiences and physical health are contributing factors.

In Relation to Needs and Interests

Another requirement for the English program of today is that it must fit the needs and interests of children. What are the needs of children? To sum up briefly, they must have the kinds of experiences which will contribute to physical, intellectual, social, and emotional growth. Schools are realizing that they are not concerned with the intellectual side of a child's life alone, but that this phase is closely related to the physical, social, and emotional. What are the interests of children? A recent publication in the general field of elementary education has attempted to sum up the kinds of interests which the modern child may be expected to have. He gives his attention to moving things, to creative play, esthetic forms, physical activity, people, the work that people do, places, construction, living things, natural phenomena and forces, and toys. Each of these types can be amplified by means of specific illustrations to show the length and breadth of the field with which the teacher must be familiar in order to guide children's school experiences in a worthwhile way. To tie up this point of view with a specific illustration, take a recent study in which children's vocabulary was enlarged in an organized and interesting fashion. Instead of studying descriptive adjectives as such, the word "elephant" was suggested and children found individually as many words as they could that would describe an elephant. Lists were pooled and children in one instance attempted to put their ideas of the elephant into the form of verse, by linking together their descriptive statements like beads on a string.

As a Measure of Growth

With a skeleton outline of course of study content which the teacher needs in brief but comprehensive form for her own guidance, she must exercise ingenuity in finding ways and means of developing needed knowledge, skills, attitudes, and appreciations at the children's own level.

In the illustration mentioned children were considered as a group rather than singly, but in the next situation with which the teacher is brought face to face she needs to think of each child as an individual. In the field of reading a recent volume has attempted to give a picture of a good fourth-grade reader. In a similar way it is possible to present a picture of a sixth-grade child who has made satisfactory progress in the field of English.

By the end of the elementary school level the child has developed the ability to speak or write a paragraph free from gross errors. Such a paragraph may represent a social-studies report, a contribution to an assembly program, a letter, a section in a school newspaper, or a summary of a school activity.

He can organize a simple two-step outline with three main headings to be used as a guide in speaking or writing. He expresses his ideas in complete sentences. He chooses with some care his opening and closing sentences, and knows that illustrations make what he says or writes more interesting. He pronounces correctly those words which are a part of his vocabulary, and has developed the habit of consulting the dictionary for the pronunciation of unfamiliar words. He enunciates clearly all words that he has had an opportunity both to see and hear. He makes a practice of checking with the dictionary in case he is not sure of the spelling of a word. He recognizes and uses the common marks of punctuation, and capital letters as well.

He has control of such specialized skills as enable him to carry on effectively a brief con-

versation with a visitor to the school, to make an announcement in the various rooms concerning a school program, to telephone for information concerning an exhibit, to take part in a school play, to retell a joke from the newspaper, to fill out information about himself on a test paper, to prepare a bibliography on a topic that interests him such as stamps, or to take part in a class discussion on recreational opportunities which the community has to offer. A child who has such control of English expression is well balanced emotionally, is physically fit, socially adjusted, and mentally alert.

If this is not a typical picture for your State, or your locality, or your grade, you will need to build such a picture for your own guidance; a picture which you can use in determining whether the children with whom you work have helped to set up some standards on the basis of their experience. After you have formulated this yardstick you may wish to build for yourself a similar picture of each individual child in the group with which you work in such a way as to show the extent of his growth in English.

A Field for Research

Another "must" for the teacher of English lies in the field of scientific study. Every classroom teacher cannot carry on experimentation but she can make use of the results of experimentation by others. One of the greatest contributions which can be made by

(Concluded on page 186)



Marionettes call for oral expression.

Selection of Reference Books

by Nora E. Beust, Specialist in School Libraries

★★★ A good basic collection of reference books is an integral part of the modern educational program. This means there should be an ample supply of dictionaries, encyclopedias, atlases, yearbooks, handbooks, directories, periodicals, indexes, bibliographies, government documents, and special reference books which satisfy the needs of the curriculum and questions arising from students' special interests and activities.

A study¹ of reference questions asked in 20 New York City public elementary schools selected at random indicates the wide variety of carefully selected reference books and informational books of all types that should be available for the children's use. There were 989 questions considered in the project, ranging from the simple type requiring for their answer the consultation of just one book, as the dictionary—(Example: Difference between turtle, tortoise, terrapin?)—to the more complex type requiring first the use of the card catalog to locate the material, and then the use of the index or table of contents of one or more books to get the desired information—(Example: Indian emblems for a Hiawatha project, or a book of amusements with a chapter on puppets.)

A sampling of some of the questions in this study that give an idea of the diversity of the reference work follow: Roman homes and armor? Spanish designs for the Linoleum Block Club? How does the owl use its beak? Why do Eskimos use dogs instead of reindeer for hauling? Book about coins? Description of Boulder Dam? How is water purified? Who said, "A thing of beauty . . ."? Who was the Roman god of fire? Origin of Halloween? Life of Rachel Field? Where are the Dardanelles? Picture of a covered wagon? Text of the Twentieth Amendment? Olympic Games? Picture of the Landing of the Pilgrims?

Reflect Curriculum Content

Questions asked by students in the high school reflect curriculum content such as history, science, biography, geography, literature, art, vocations, sociology, economics, etiquette, and special interests, including information for dramatics, debates, forums, and hobby clubs.

The small amount of money available for the purchase of books in school libraries is another important factor in the selection of reference

¹ Carpenter, H. W. What is Back of Efficient Reference Work in an Elementary School Library? *Wilson Bulletin* X: 15-19, September 1935.



"Absorbed."

SUGGESTIONS

For the guidance of the selector of reference books for school use there are some general statements which are briefly summarized here.

1. Get acquainted with the reference books that are in the school.
2. Be sure that the books are readily available to those who have need of them.
3. Make provision for continuous training in the effective use of reference materials beginning with the first school year.
4. Keep a card list of "wants"—titles which you know you need.
5. Investigate the possibility of sending students to the public library, or borrowing for occasional use reference books from a neighboring school or public library or other agency.
6. Remember that there are many types of children with great differences in abilities and interests which the books you purchase should serve.
7. Do not limit reference books to encyclopedias.
8. Always refer to a disinterested, responsible source of information before purchasing a reference work. Do not be stampeded into buying.

materials. Statistics² show that 21½ cents per pupil for books, pamphlets, periodicals, and binding in school libraries is the approximate average spent in the school year 1934-35. This figure is based on the expenditure of \$2,688,777 by 3,130 county and city school systems with an enrollment of 12,501,017 pupils. In view of the fact that only approximately one-half of the school systems in the United States are represented in this report, caution should be exercised in applying the percentages to the country as a whole.

However, school-library statistics gathered by the American Library Association³ from a selected list of secondary schools for the year 1937-38 show that the average expenditure for books, periodicals, and binding per pupil for the current report 1937-38 has a range from 10 cents for New York City to \$1.69 for Fresno, Calif. The average spent per pupil was 54 cents for the 36 cities reporting. Only three cities—Fresno, Calif., Minneapolis, and Den-

² U. S. Department of the Interior. Office of Education. *Statistics of Public-School Libraries, 1934-35*. Washington, U. S. Government Printing Office, 1938. (Bull. 1937, No. 2, ch. V, vol. II.)

³ Beust, Nora E. *School Library Statistics, 1937-38*. ALA Bull. 33: 103, February 1939.

ver—reported spending \$1 or more per student for books, periodicals, and binding. The American Library Association's figures still show expenditures far below the amount needed for adequate materials.

These facts should make the selector of reference books hesitate to purchase material where there is any possibility that it may be a waste of money, for it deprives children of the books that they have a right to expect in an American school.

Time and Skill

Time and special skill in book evaluation are two other elements that are involved in the selection of reference books. Even experts who have been trained and had wide experience in reference work need to spend hours examining many of the publications that should be considered for school purchase. Because of the problems involved in buying from agents the so-called subscription books, which make up a large part of the volumes usually found on reference shelves, a committee on subscription books⁴ of the American Library Association was appointed in 1926. The outcome of this committee's activities was the publication of the *Subscription Books Bulletin*,⁵ the first number appearing in January 1930. This bulletin contains reviews of subscription books, which are written by a committee of 11 members who examine and appraise the volumes. In order that its recommendations may truly represent the opinion of the entire committee, each member passes on each review twice in the course of its preparation, each time returning the review, with suggested changes or approval, to the chairman who in turn sends the final copy to the headquarters office for printing. In addition to reviewing books, the committee is called on to act as a kind of advisory agency on all matters relating to subscription books by librarians, school superintendents, and others.

The *Subscription Books Bulletin* always carries a note which reads, "Authority is given to reprint any review in full, but not to quote any review in part except with permission of the American Library Association." The reason for this is obviously that, though there may be some excellent features about a work, there also may be other factors which would make the volume under consideration of doubtful value to the student, such as inaccuracies of statement or omission of information. Members of the instructional staff of the school will want to study the July and October 1939, issues of this publication, as many volumes that are constantly called to the attention of the home and school by agents are reviewed. If small libraries do not sub-

scribe to this publication, the desired information about reference books may be obtained through the State library agency or a neighboring library.

Three Cardinal Points

Though one can rely upon the judgment of the members of the committee on subscription books of the American Library Association,



There is satisfaction in finding the answers.

still it is also desirable to know something about the type of criteria that are generally recognized in the evaluation of factual books. Three cardinal points are: First, authority of the information as to accuracy, completeness and up-to-dateness; second, extent and quality of the bibliographies; and third, format of the book which includes mechanical arrangement.

Reference works are often compiled under the supervision of an editor in chief, assisted by specialists who act as editors in their respective fields. If a list of editors, giving their positions and qualifications, is not included in the prospectus of a work which pretends to be comprehensive and authoritative, the worth of the material is open to question.

One of the most satisfactory ways to determine the authority of the editors is to examine the names of the specialists in the fields of knowledge with which you are most familiar; for example, secondary education, music, or art.

To test the completeness of information, study an article which describes a process or an event with which you have had a personal experience; for example, the manufacturing of aeroplanes or rayon, or the Century of Progress exposition, etc.

The copyright dates on the verso of the title page are the most evident information on the original publication date and the recency of the revision of the volumes. However, an examination of maps for recently constructed power dams, national forests or new boundaries and the study of subject matter for inclusion of such topics as safety, conservation, and television gives more concrete information on the up-to-dateness of the actual materials of the work.

Articles should also be read to discover if there is religious, political, or economic bias. Sometimes there is evidence of unevenness of plan or execution of articles, e. g., literature and art may be carefully and fully treated but science and industries only indifferently presented.

Format Important

The format is important. Are the weight and color of the fabric which covers the book satisfactory for hard wear? Does the book open easily? Is the paper extremely thin or very thick or heavily calendared? The printed page should be easily legible. Are the pictures clear and of a good quality of color and design, or do they look cheap and confusing? Is the information in the work easily available through the general arrangement and typography as well as through the cross-references and indexes?

In every case careful consideration is always the best policy. If a work has genuine merit the agent can offer no reasonable objection to granting time for full examination.

Some References

Further information on the purchase of reference books is found in the following:

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⁵ The Subscription Books Bulletin is published quarterly by the American Library Association, 520 N. Michigan Avenue, Chicago, Ill.

Making the Most of Medical Inspection

by James Frederick Rogers, M. D., Consultant in Hygiene

★★★ If we make the most of medical inspection in our schools, we need the complete understanding and support of our efforts by the local medical profession.

Granted this is accomplished, we must never lose sight of the important fact that the purpose of the health examination is not to find defects and to record them but to get something done about them—to put the child in as good condition as possible for school work and for the business of living. This seems a mere statement of a truism but we often fail, more or less, of this essential objective.

The mere finding of defects gets us nowhere. We have merely wasted our time and public funds if nothing comes of it. If we do not feel that something must be done, in each case, we get into ways of finding too many and inconsequential ailments. Our aim, at the time of examination, should be the treatment of 100 percent of the defects found and 100 percent treatment of those defects. I am using the word "treatment" rather than "correction" because most defects cannot be removed and some require persistent efforts for their improvement.

Presuming we take this view of the matter of medical inspection, we will tend to be conservative in what we label as defects. It is easy to find faults of vision, for the human eye is anything but a perfect optical instrument but we sometimes forget that glasses are not an unmixed good, especially when ill-fitted.

In labeling 50 percent of children as having bad tonsils we overlook the fact that there is no evidence that more than a small proportion are benefited by the costly and always hazardous procedure of their removal. It is little wonder that we do not usually secure 100 percent correction of these defects.

Consideration of Parent

The next step, and here we have in many instances failed, is to give the parent due consideration. As parents have often been treated in the past, I sometimes wonder that we get even the 15 or 20 or 25 percent of responses to our efforts that are sometimes reported. We accomplish nothing without parents' consent and cooperation. They are more interested in the child than anyone else, including ourselves, and they are glad enough to have anything done for the child that they believe will really benefit him. There are, of course, exceptions but they are few. We must treat them as we ourselves would want to be treated. We must take them into our confidence. Even so, we need not expect them to say, yes, yes, to everything we pro-

pose for they have not been brought up healthwise, or otherwise, as we have. Many of them need to be educated and that is said to be the chief business of our school health service.

Granted that they are human beings, greatly concerned for the welfare of their children, but that they desire to be informed and helped rather than to be dictated to, it would seem as if we should ask them to be present at the examination of their child. There is a manifold purpose in this: (a) To give them the respect due them (for anyone who undertakes the business of parenthood is deserving of respect and consideration); (b) to show them we are interested in the family; (c) to obtain first-hand knowledge of the child, for the examiner cannot have too much knowledge, especially with regard to conditions, a decision on which means much expense and possible harm to the child; (d) to furnish the parent first hand with advice as to the general care or special treatment of the child; (e) to save unnecessary work by the nurse; (f) and last but not least, to show the parent that the school physician is really a first-class physician genuinely interested in the child and working for his good.

The teacher ought to know her children both physically and mentally and she may well be consulted by the physician and certainly the nurse should be in attendance, for, if following up must be done (and often it will need to be done), the parent is already introduced to her and is not so likely to look upon her as meddling in affairs which may seem to the parent none of her business.

So much for the routine examination which occurs once a year or less often, but at that examination, some 20 percent of children are absent and, during the year, many children enter the school after the time for examinations. We are not making the most of our health service if these children are not brought to the attention of the physician by the teacher or nurse. Then there are children who have serious illnesses during the school year, who often return to school before they are fully recovered and who are not infrequently damaged for life. These need a careful examination.

Teacher Always Present

The appearance of diseases and defects do not await the periodic visit of the physician, dentist, or nurse, but the teacher is always present. Any musician who is worthy of the name is sensitive to the condition of the instrument on which he plays. The teacher is a musician. She is not playing upon heavenly harps which never get out of tune and it is

strange that she should ever be indifferent to the physical welfare of the child. Most of our school medical work is done by the use of the eyes and the teacher has as keen vision as the average person. She was the first line inspector in the beginnings of this work in Boston and she remains in this important post. As one experienced school physician remarked, "she is the keystone of medical inspection" and another one said, "the more that teachers know along this line, the more they will stir the physician to his best work." Health examinations can be linked with health instruction and the teacher is the connecting link which binds these two functions of the school together.

To make the most of medical inspection the teacher should be prepared to know when the instrument on which she plays is in tune. If this preparation has not been accomplished in the course of her schooling, any medical inspector should be glad to give her this training. After all mere periodic examinations are, in a way, an absurdity and it is no wonder we have difficulty in determining whether they shall be made yearly, or biennially, or triennially, or what not. What we most need is daily observation of the child at rest and in action.

Having been conservative in our search for defects, there is still the matter of treatment. This should be made possible for every child and the treatment should be adequate. For some cases this means prolonged treatment and prolonged treatment means expensive treatment. Many parents, willing enough to do something for the child, if there is promise of immediate improvement, become discouraged over results and appalled at the cost where improvement is slow. Cases of evident disability—children who are crippled in body or limb—are now being given public consideration but less spectacular cases needing attention over weeks or months are not always adequately provided for. No matter what the facilities for treatment, we must, of course, depend on that most important person, the school nurse, to see that 100 percent of our defective children are given 100 percent treatment.

To make the most of our health service we should do what we can to prevent defectiveness. This can only be done by improving nutrition and by preventing communicable disease. Many defects of eyes and ears and heart and other organs have their beginnings in such all-too-common ailments as measles and scarlet fever and diphtheria. Malnutrition and defectiveness are closely related. Nutrition is a compli-

(Concluded on page 186)

Education in Turkey

by Severin K. Turosienski, Specialist in Comparative Education

★★★ Since the Turkish National Revolution of 1922 the educational, political, and social face of Turkey has completely changed. The system of education follows in general the lines of continental European practice, although remaining distinctively Turkish. The child begins elementary school at the age of 7 and attendance is compulsory until the age of 16. The features most characteristic of Turkish education are as follows: It is (1) entirely democratic, with no social distinctions; (2) free of charge in all public schools of elementary, secondary, normal, vocational, and higher education; there are no fees for tuition or registration; and all students in rural schools are furnished with free textbooks; (3) uniform and lay; (4) coeducational; and (5) national and controlled by the State.

Physical education is compulsory in all schools. The Ministry of Public Instruction through the Director General of Physical Education organizes and directs all sports, gymnastics and other bodily exercises, developing the physical and moral capacities of the citizen in conformity with the principles of national evolution. A national athletic convention is held every year in the month of May. There are boy scout and girl scout organizations.

No religion may be taught in any school. If parents desire to give their children religious instruction, they must do so outside the school.

General education in modern Turkey is organized on the plan of a 5-year elementary school (ilkokul), followed by a 3-year middle school (ortaokul), and this, in turn, followed by a 3-year lyceum (lise). The last year of the lyceum offers two options: scientific (fen) and literary (edebiyat).

Program of Studies

The curriculum or program of studies for middle schools (ortaokul) is as follows:

Required subjects of study	Hours a week by classes (years)		
	I	II	III
Turkish	5	4	4
Foreign language (French, English, or German)	5	4	4
History	2	2	3
Civics	2	2	2
Geography	2	2	2
Mathematics	5	4	4
Science with laboratory work	4	4	2
Biology and hygiene	2	2	3
Manual training	2		
Gymnastics	1	1	1
Drawing	1	1	1
Military drill (for boys)		2	2
Child care and domestic science (for girls)	2	2	2
Total	27	28	28



The call of the youth.

At the close of the third year, the student takes a final examination, and, if he is successful, is granted by the ministry of public instruction a middle-school diploma (ortaokulu bitirme diploması). The diploma admits the holder to a lyceum, a normal school, or a professional school of lyceum rank.

The curriculum for a lyceum (lise) is as follows:

Required subjects of study	Hours a week by classes (years)			
	I	II	III	
			Scientific	Literary
Literature	3	3	2	5
Philosophy and sociology			2	6
Foreign language (French, English, or German)	5	5	4	6
History	2	2	3	3
Geography	2	2	1	1
Mathematics	5	4	8	2
Natural history	3	2	1	1
Physics	3	4	3	1½
Chemistry	3	4	3	1½
Gymnastics	1	1	1	1
Military drill (for boys)	2	2	2	2
Domestic science (for girls)	2	2	2	2
Total	29	29	30	30

Satisfactory completion of either of these options and passing a final examination, commonly called the baccalaureate examina-

tion, earn a maturity or baccalaureate diploma (olgunluk diploması), which admits the holder to an institution of higher education. This diploma is granted by the ministry of public instruction.

The middle school and the lyceum are not really separate schools. They are often in the same buildings, under the same administration, and with the same teaching staff. The differences are in the classification of school years, the emphasis upon the groups of subjects of study and their extent, and, finally, in the right of entrance into the next higher stage. In fact, they are one secondary school and are so counted. The middle school represents the first cycle (I. devre) and the lyceum the second cycle (II. devre) of general secondary education.

In addition to the middle schools and lyceums of general education there are vocational schools of the same rank including technical, commercial, agricultural, naval and military, and professional schools maintained by various ministries to train their personnel such as tax officials, post-office officials, policemen, minor juridical personnel, etc.

In all phases of technical education, a large number of students are sent by the National Government to European and American universities to specialize in their different fields.

Institutions of Higher Education

National University of Istanbul (İstanbul Üniversitesi) founded in 1896, was reorganized in 1933. It has faculties of philosophy, science, law, medicine with a school of dentistry, engineering, and a school of pharmacy. The curricula in dentistry and pharmacy are 3 years in duration; in medicine, 5 years. Other courses last usually 4 years. In 1937 the university enrolled about 5,000 students.

National University of Ankara, with faculties of law and philosophy, enrolls about 2,000 students.

Atatürk Institute of Education (Terbiye Enstitüsü) at Ankara, and the Higher Normal School (Yüksek öğretmen okulu) at Istanbul, train teachers for secondary schools. They are organized into five departments—mathematics, natural science, literature, history-geography, and pedagogy.

Higher School of Commercial and Economic Sciences (Yüksek iktisat ve ticaret okulu) at Ankara, formerly at Istanbul, was founded in 1875. It offers a 3-year curriculum, the last year of which has three options: Administration, finance-commerce, and politics.

Higher School of Forestry (Yüksek orman mektebi) at Istanbul, founded in 1855, offers a 3-year curriculum leading to a diploma.

Academy of Fine Arts (Güzel Sanatlar Akademisi) at Istanbul, was founded in 1881. It is organized into four departments—architecture, painting, construction, and arts.

Institute of Agriculture and Veterinary Medicine (Yüksek ziraat Enstitüsü) at Ankara offers 4-year curricula in agriculture and veterinary medicine. It was founded in 1933.

School of Maritime Commerce at Istanbul trains men to be both deck officers and engineer officers. The curriculum is 4 years in duration.

In addition, there are higher schools for national defense, including the Military Academy, the General Staff Academy, and the Naval Academy, all at Istanbul.

Education of Teachers

Teachers for elementary schools are educated in normal schools (öğretmen okulları). Applicants for admission must be graduates of middle schools of general education and pass an entrance examination. The curriculum is 3 years in duration. The first 2 years are on approximately the same levels as those in a lyceum, except that general and child psychology are added in the second year. The third year includes considerable strictly professional work based on and carried along with good general education. The practical lessons are given in primary model schools annexed to each normal school. Completion of the curriculum and passing the final examination earn for the candidate a diploma which entitles him to teach in elementary schools.

Teachers for middle schools are trained in the Ghazi Normal School (Gazi Orta öğretmen okulu) of the Institute of Education (Terbiye Enstitüsü) of Ankara, which admits elemen-

tary school teachers with at least 2 years of practice and offers them a 2-year curriculum. The Institute of Education includes also the Normal School of Physical Education and the Normal School of Drawing and Manual Training, both at Ankara. Candidates for admission to these schools must be successful elementary school teachers for at least 2 years and pass a competitive entrance examination. The general curricula are 2 years in duration. A normal school of rural economy at Eskişehir was opened for students at the beginning of the school year 1939-40.

The İsmet İnönü Institute for Girls at Ankara has a normal department for training of teachers of domestic science in 2 years. Teachers of music for normal and middle schools receive their training in the Normal School of Music (Ankara musiki öğretmen okulu) at Ankara. It admits graduates of elementary schools and offers them a 6-year curriculum, providing for the study of a musical instrument during that period.

Teachers for lyceums are university graduates who have completed additionally the prescribed courses in general and experimental psychology.

Civil Service Status

All members of the administrative and teaching personnel in public institutions have civil-service status. Appointments are made by the Ministry of Public Instruction for life or until the age of retirement is reached. After 25 years of active service, a teacher may retire with a pension of 50 percent of his basic salary. Widows and orphans of teachers are also entitled to pensions.

Foreign and minority schools, like the public schools, are subject to the strict control of the Ministry of Public Instruction. Their curricula and teaching staff must be approved by the Ministry. The Turkish language and literature, history, civics, geography, and art must be taught by Turkish teachers in Turkish.

Among the foreign schools are two American institutions: Robert College, for boys, at Bebek, Istanbul, and Constantinople Woman's College at Arnaoutköy on the Bosphorus, maintained by the Near East Foundation. They are leading institutions not only in Turkey, but also in the Balkan States. They offer instruction on secondary and college levels. The requirements for admission to and graduation from their degree curricula are on a level with those of standard colleges in the United States. Robert College was founded in 1863, and Constantinople Woman's College in 1871 by official decrees. In 1932 they were united under the name of the Istanbul American College and are under the direction of one president.

The compulsory introduction of the new Turkish alphabet, composed of Latin characters,¹ which is better suited phonetically to the genius of the Turkish language² than the Arabic script, has developed an immense thirst for learning. It has greatly assisted Turkish students to learn modern languages by relieving them of the preliminary difficulty

¹ The Grand National Assembly of Turkey decreed the use of Latin alphabet December 1, 1928.

² The language of modern Turkey, which under the Sultans was known as Osmanlı or Ottoman Turkish, is now called Türkçe (Turkish). The name "Türk" means "strength."

(Concluded on page 186)

Students in a secondary commercial school.



The Department of Justice

by Walton C. John, Specialist in Higher Education



Robert H. Jackson.

★★★ Both the Federal Bureau of Investigation and the Bureau of Prisons have established schools of different types corresponding to their particular functions in the Department of Justice.

The Department of Justice was established June 22, 1870, by act of Congress. The post of Attorney General, however, was created September 24, 1789. This Department is the agency through which the President exercises his constitutional authority in enforcing the laws of the United States Government. The Attorney General's functions and those of other leading officers and major divisions will be described briefly as a background for a more detailed treatment of the schools which are under the Department's jurisdiction.

General Functions

The Attorney General advises the President and executive department heads on legal questions upon request. He may, on extraordinary occasions, appear before the Supreme Court. He has general superintendence and direction of United States district attorneys and marshals, and he may provide special counsel for the United States in certain cases.

The Solicitor General, next in authority, has charge of the Government's interests relating to the Supreme Court and he has the power to authorize or to reject appeals to intermediate courts.

NOTE.—The writer expresses his appreciation to Joseph A. Mulcahy, Special Executive Assistant to the Attorney General, to J. Edgar Hoover, Director of the F. B. I., to Hugh H. Clegg, Assistant Director of the F. B. I., and to Benjamin Frank, Supervisor of Prisons, Bureau of Prisons, for their cooperation in obtaining the data which are basic to this article.

The Assistant to the Attorney General has charge of administrative, personnel, and legislative matters of the Department.

There are also five principal divisions each under the direction of an Assistant Attorney General as follows: The Antitrust Division, the Tax Division, the Claims Division, the Land Division, and the Criminal Division. There are three Bureaus—the Federal Bureau of Investigation, the Bureau of Prisons, and the Bureau of War Risk Litigation, and in addition there are the Bonds and Spirits Division, the Board of Parole, and Attorney for Pardons.

Under the Attorney General there has been organized the Civil Liberties Unit within the Criminal Division. In the few short months that the unit has been at work it has accomplished much.

Enforcement of Federal Laws

The Field Service includes 94 Federal districts in which there are at work 510 district attorneys and assistants and 1,031 marshals and deputies. The Federal Bureau of Investigation has 52 field offices strategically located. The staff of the Criminal Division includes 36 field attorneys and clerks and the Federal Prison Service comprises 2,916 employees as well as 219 probation and parole officers and 128 clerks.

These individuals and units of the Department are directing their energies toward the purpose of obtaining obedience to Federal law by the people. It happens, nevertheless, that there are many who break the law or attempt to evade it, consequently the Government has set up agencies for the apprehension of law violators.

Among these important agencies is the Bureau of Investigation of the Department of Justice which "has general charge of investigation of offenses against laws of the United States, except counterfeiting, narcotics, and other matters not within the jurisdiction of the Department of Justice; of the acquisition, collection, classification, preservation, and exchange of criminal identification records; and of such investigations regarding official matters under control of the Department of Justice and the Department of State as may be directed by the Attorney General."

It is through this Bureau that the Department detects crime, apprehends criminals and other law breakers in order to bring them to trial and either to obtain their conviction and punishment or their acquittal. In case the

one convicted is imprisoned he comes under the jurisdiction of the Bureau of Prisons. This Bureau has general charge of Federal penal institutions and of prisoners. It also has charge of matters relating to prison contracts and to the parole law.

The F. B. I. Academy

The training school for newly appointed agents is housed in the new Department of Justice Building in Washington. The classrooms, laboratories, and offices including the educational and laboratory equipment are fully up to date. The length of the course for newly appointed agents is 16 weeks.

Objectives

The following quotation from an address of J. Edgar Hoover, Director of the Federal Bureau of Investigation and head of the F. B. I. schools, suggests a number of objectives.

"There is nothing secret about the manner in which the Federal Bureau of Investigation works. Its formula is a simple one—intensive training, highly efficient and carefully investigated personnel, rigid requirements in education, conduct, intelligence, ability to concentrate, alertness, zeal, and loyalty, plus careful schooling in which we do our utmost to make every man to a degree self-sufficient. He must be a good marksman and have the courage to shoot it out with the most venomous of public enemies. He must know how to take fingerprints and what to do with them afterward. He must learn that no clue, no matter how seemingly unimportant, can be overlooked. He must have constantly before him the fact that science is a bulwark of criminal investigation and neglect no avenue toward this end. And he must realize that no case ever ends for the Federal Bureau of Investigation until it has been solved and closed by the conviction of the guilty or the acquittal of the innocent."

The scope and variety of activities for which the school prepares involve such matters as bankruptcy frauds, antitrust and National Bank Act violators, as well as crimes on Government reservations, kidnappings, and bank robberies. The agent must be competent to handle any or all of the kinds of investigations relating to the above matters—he cannot limit himself to merely a single field.

Admission Requirements

Candidates for admission must be citizens of the United States. The training school is available only to regularly appointed special agents of the Federal Bureau of Investigation. The student must be between the ages of 23 and 35, the age limits for all new appointees as special agents. The applicant "must be a graduate of an accredited law school who has been admitted to the bar and who possesses at least 2 years of legal or business experience, or he must be a graduate of an accredited accounting school and must have had at least 3 years of practical commercial accounting and auditing experience. The previous business experience may have been secured any time before, during, or after securing the educational training."

A careful check is made in every respect of the applicant's past record. The physical condition of the student is of prime importance. Among other items, we mention the following: He must be at least 5 feet 7 inches tall without shoes and must be able to hear ordinary conversation at a distance of at least 15 feet with each ear. He must meet the test for eyesight. Other important tests must be met.

Training School Faculty

The regular F. B. I. faculty of five members is augmented by the specialists of the Bureau who lecture on special subjects; there are around 50 visiting faculty members who give instruction or lecture. Among the latter are leading city police commissioners, legal specialists in the fields of law enforcement and criminology, sociologists, fire marshals, crime reporters, toxicologists, traffic research specialists, firearms specialists, medical examiners, scientists, educators, as well as leaders in the fields of public law, safety education, and other subjects related to the education and training of the agents.

Methods of Instruction

In addition to lectures and routine class work the students are given experience in crime situations by laboratory methods. The use of a wax dummy, known as Oscar, in a variety of criminal situations, makes it possible quickly to learn the best methods of gathering evidence in case of murder. Practical fingerprinting detection is demonstrated on an old automobile known as Beulah. A bank robber's den or other criminal hang-out may be simulated in The Rogues' Den for the purpose of checking criminal activities or movements. Hypothetical cases are also staged.

Following sufficient experience through these methods and procedures the new agent will be put to work with an experienced field agent, and finally he will handle real cases by himself. Many skillfully designed devices are used in dealing with problems and techniques connected with raids and arrests.



U. S. Department of Justice Headquarters.

The Bureau of Investigation has a library with works on law enforcement methods and technique as well as the Department's law library.

In addition to the school for newly appointed agents there is the F. B. I. In-service School which operates for periods 2 to 4 weeks in length to bring the agents up to date in the latest methods and techniques of enforcement.

The F. B. I. School for Special Agents in Charge is set up whenever the Director sees fit to strengthen the training of special agents in charge of the Bureau's field divisions. The F. B. I. Chief Clerks Training School is attended by the chief clerical employees of each of the 52 field offices of the Bureau. The course is planned as an annual event running for one week. Furthermore the F. B. I. has regular in-service clerical schools and administrative courses and instructors courses.

F. B. I. National Police Academy

The Federal Bureau of Investigation National Police Academy was established in 1935 for the training of executives and instructors in law enforcement organizations—municipal, county and State. The school is located in Washington.

Recently the Government has provided a modern barracks building at Quantico, Va., not far from Washington, where those attending the academy are required to reside. This is because it is necessary to give instruction during the evening on occasions involving the practice in handling firearms at night.

Students are selected by the Bureau following the filing of an application by the particular law enforcement organization. The Bureau then invites this organization to designate

one of its representatives to attend. The course offered by the academy is limited to regularly constituted law enforcement officers. The F. B. I. National Police Academy is a service to America's law enforcement agencies whose officers attend its courses without cost to the local communities other than transportation to Washington and nominal living expenses while attending the academy.

Course of Study

The program of study is similar to that provided for the special agents of the Bureau. Supplementary courses are offered in such subjects as Foot Patrol, Motorized Radio Patrol, Detective Division Functions, Police Communications and Police Reports, Travel, Police Organization and Administration, Teaching Methods, and also Safety Education.

In-Service Training Courses

Graduates of the police academy are given yearly the opportunity for a short period of review in the latest developments in law enforcement methods and techniques. These schools run about 10 days.

Other Educational Activities

The Federal Bureau of Investigation also offers courses for the benefit of employees in the several field offices. This instruction is given in connection with the visit of one of the Bureau's inspectors. Correspondence courses in accountancy are also available for all members of the Bureau personnel. Quarterly conferences also are held in the various field offices for both the special agents and



Vocational training at a Federal reformatory.

members of the clerical personnel. Likewise the investigative force of the F. B. I. has periodic firearms training in the field.

Schools in U. S. Prisons

The Department of Justice through the Bureau of Prisons operates what is said to be the "largest unified correctional plan in the world." The Director of the Bureau is James V. Bennett whose office is in the Department of Justice in Washington. There are about 18,000 prisoners in the 20 or more Federal penal institutions which comprise the 6 penitentiaries located at Alcatraz Island, Calif.; Atlanta, Ga.; Leavenworth, and Fort Leavenworth, Kans.; Lewisburg, Pa.; and McNeil Island, Wash.; the Federal Industrial Institution for Women, Alderson, W. Va.; two Industrial Reformatories, one at Chillicothe, Ohio, and El Reno, Okla.; the Medical Center and Hospital for Defective Delinquents at Springfield, Mo.; Detention Headquarters, New York City; the Federal Correctional Institutions at New Orleans; Milan, Mich.; Tallahassee, Fla.; Terminal Island, San Pedro, Calif.; Sandstone, Minn.; and at La Tuna, Tex.; the Reformatory Camp at Petersburg, Va.; and also the special camps which help in gradually accustoming prisoners to a life of liberty, located at Dupont, Wash.; Montgomery, Ala.; Tucson, Ariz.; and Kooskia, Idaho.

Need for Education

It is not enough to separate or isolate the criminal from society for a period of time.

To turn the criminal loose on society after punishment without any effort to better him before he again attempts to gain a living by honorable means, is in many cases the cause of making him more antisocial and possibly more criminal.

The Bureau of Prisons has therefore set up a program of education and training to meet individual needs and which, combined with appropriate discipline, will tend to restore the prison inmate to a more harmonious relation with society.

Selection for Educational Privileges

When an offender is committed to a Federal penal institution, he goes through what is often known as the "quarantine period." The period is devoted to the investigating, interviewing, and examination of each new prisoner by various officers, depending on the size and character of the institution. Information is secured and examinations are made by the record clerk, associate warden, warden's assistants, or institutional case workers, chief medical officer, psychiatrist, psychologist, supervisor of education, chaplain, recreation officer, parole officer. Each of these staff members studies the new inmate for the purpose of discovering what problems he presents. The study is followed by recommendations for remedial and corrective measures.

At the end of the quarantine period, the classification committee, consisting of the members of the staff just mentioned, presided over by the warden or superintendent reviews all of the information, considers the recommendations of the various specialists, and outlines a definite program with regard to custody, discipline, social service, education,

employment, recreation, religious training, medical and surgical treatment, psychiatric and psychological attention, and, when necessity is indicated, transfer to another institution.

Objectives

The objectives of the educational program of the Federal penal institutions are comprehensive. They include the removal of illiteracy where the deficiency is primarily caused by the deprivation of opportunity; the removal of common-school deficiencies; the provision of opportunities for education, both cultural and general; the provision for industrial and vocational training; and the development of avocations and recreational and leisure-time activities of a wholesome character.

Leading Educational Activities

The following units are the basis of the educational program in these institutions:¹

"(1) Elementary education for illiterates and borderline illiterates. This includes all individuals who are below fourth-, or fifth-grade level on standardized achievement tests and who have the ability to assimilate such training.

"(2) Advanced academic education for those men above the first group on standardized achievement tests who are interested in making up their elementary school deficiencies. An attempt is made to organize instructional and test material around such subject-matter fields as English, civics, and industrial and social problems on the adult level.

"(3) Related trades and occupational information classes for a selected group of industrial workers and for all vocational trainees. In the field of vocational education, major stress is placed on the problem of utilizing the regular maintenance and industrial activities of the institution for 'on the job' training of the kind that is becoming generally accepted in outside industries. Those inmates who are capable of assimilating trade training and of developing high-grade industrial or trade skills are designated by the classification committee of the institution as vocational trainees and are required to carry on a program of related school work.

"(4) Special classes in such fields as languages, commercial subjects, mathematics, lettering, and mechanical drawing, and a variety of other subjects at a fairly advanced level have been set up and designed to meet the cultural and practical interests of a selected group of the higher-grade inmates.

"(5) Correspondence and cell study courses for those men who cannot attend classes or whose needs and interests cannot be met in any of the other units just mentioned. With few exceptions, all cell study courses are constructed by the educational department and administered very much on the pattern of

¹ Frank, Benjamin. Education in the Federal Prisons. Bureau of Prisons, Department of Justice, Washington 1938.

standard correspondence-school methods. The lessons are sent one at a time, with suitable work assignments, to the men in their quarters. These are returned to the educational department in each institution for correction and the student accumulates the lessons until the course has been completed. These cell study and correspondence courses are both academic and vocational in nature. A few of the typical courses of this kind are correct English, arithmetic for adults, modern business arithmetic, laundry practice, Diesel engines, household refrigeration, and agriculture."

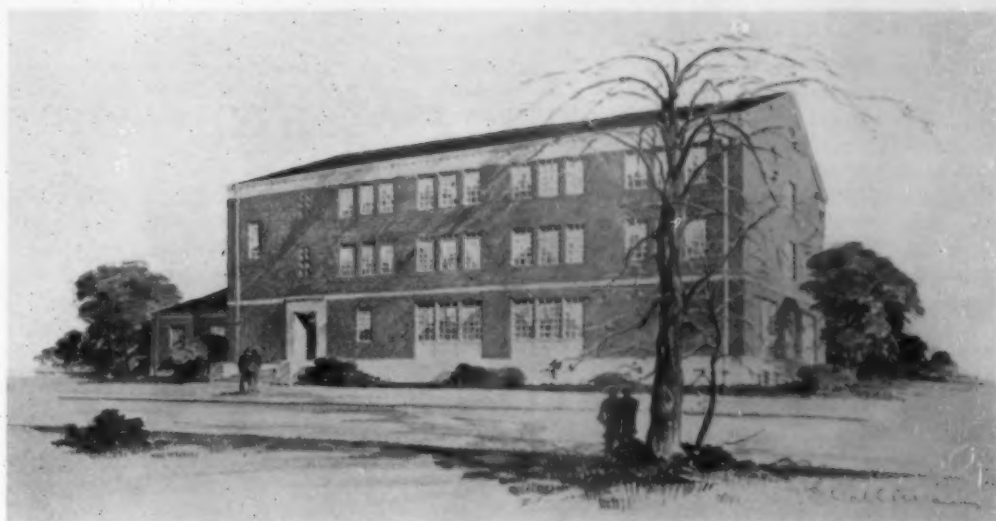
These major educational activities are not equally carried on in all of the Federal institutions but are given different emphasis in the several institutions.

Among the reformatories, the school at the United States Industrial Reformatory, Chillicothe, Ohio, is considered to have "the widest and most complete development; the school proper is housed in a two-story building providing classrooms, a well-equipped library, science laboratory and special rooms for the use of visual aids in instruction, a day and evening school for academic and vocational subjects, a well-organized recreational program, music instruction, and a highly successful inmate council."

The United States Northeastern Penitentiary at Lewisburg, Pa., is noted for its educational program. The academic courses include the different levels on through the secondary school grades. Cooperative relations exist between the penitentiary and a nearby university which provides instruction for selected groups of adult men. Evening classes are available five times a week. Students may accumulate credits to the equivalent of 3 years of high-school work in accordance with an arrangement made with the State department of education.

In other penitentiaries it has been found desirable to give more attention to elementary education on the lower levels because of the large number of illiterate persons. Emphasis is also placed on cell courses for individuals who are not allowed to attend the regular classes.

A most interesting and significant work in education behind prison walls is being carried on at the Federal penitentiary at Atlanta, Ga. At this institution, with a staff consisting of an educational supervisor, two assistant supervisors, an industrial and vocational counselor, a librarian and two chaplains, there is being developed a comprehensive program of educational activities. More than a thousand men are enrolled in the more formal classroom type of work in elementary education for adult illiterates; classes in commercial work; related trades and occupational groups; art classes of various kinds; special subjects at secondary school levels; a journalism class which publishes a monthly publication; supplementary visual education. In addition classes and forums in religious education are conducted by the chaplains; educational radio broadcasts are conducted at regular periods during the



Barracks and school facilities (F. B. I.) Quantico, Va.

week on the institutional radio system, a part of which is tied in with the well known weekly program of the Town Hall of the Air, the records being obtained from the local radio station, used at suitable hours in the institution, and followed by an open forum conducted by the inmate group on the same topic.

Enrollments

According to the report for 1938-39 educational work of some kind or other was being participated in by approximately 7,200 prison inmates in the several Federal penal institutions. Of these about 4,300 were attending regular classes of elementary grade or other special courses; over 1,200 men were obtaining vocational training and more than 1,700 were enrolled for cell study and correspondence instruction.

Libraries

The library facilities in these Federal penal institutions are a significant adjunct in the education of prison inmates. Each of the large institutional libraries is directed by full-time trained librarians attached to the educational staff. The total number of volumes in the 19 libraries approximates today over 136,000. The accessions of books for the

past year reached 10,452 new volumes. The largest collection is found at the Atlanta Penitentiary with more than 18,000 volumes.

The libraries are exceedingly popular according to the circulation figures given. During the year referred to 728,621 books were circulated, not to mention around 170,000 single issues of magazines. The interest in serious reading is shown by the fact that 36 percent of the books loaned in 1938-39 were classified as nonfiction. In institutions with full-time trained librarians this figure averaged more than 40 percent.

Inmates are allowed to go to the libraries and select their books in practically all of the institutions. At the Lewisburg Penitentiary the library is open for readers during evening hours and it is taxed for seating room. This library is modern in every respect and would do justice to any first class college in its design and appointments. At the Atlanta Penitentiary a carefully planned schedule permits inmates to come to the library to select books, to browse around the stacks or to read newspapers and magazines and in other larger institutions use is made of "Bookmobiles" which are sent around to all units of the institution. In such an atmosphere the inmates develop self respect and gain some appreciation of the finer things of life.

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Accrediting of Professional Schools

by Ella B. Ratcliffe, Chief Educational Assistant, Higher Education Division

★★★ The following account of the accrediting of professional schools is a continuation of an article which appeared in last month's issue of *SCHOOL LIFE*. The previous article dealt with the accrediting of medical, dental, and law schools.

During the past two decades or more, there has been an increasing tendency for organizations interested in the advancement of education in certain special fields not hitherto having a separate professional status, to seek to raise the requirements of training in those fields to the position where the institutions may be elevated to university schools or colleges. The result has been the drawing up of standards for institutions offering training in these specialized fields and accrediting the institutions which meet the standards.

In the following summary there is given briefly an account of the work of accrediting undertaken by national organizations representing certain other professional fields.

Library Science

In 1923 the American Library Association appointed a temporary library-training board "to investigate the field of library-training, to formulate standards for all forms of library training agencies, to devise a plan for accrediting such agencies, and to report to the council." This board, with the aid of a subvention from the Carnegie Corporation, made a study of library school conditions. In its subsequent report to the association it recommended the establishment of a permanent board of education for librarianship, whose functions, among others, would be "to investigate the extent to which existing agencies meet the needs of the profession; formulate for the approval of the council minimum standards for library schools . . . classify these agencies in accordance with the standards thus adopted; publish annually a list of the accredited agencies."

Such a permanent board was created in 1924 and authorized by its charter to accredit and classify library schools. During the first year of its existence it made a survey of the library schools in the United States, formulated minimum standards for the various types of schools, including junior undergraduate library schools, senior undergraduate library schools, graduate library schools, and advanced graduate library schools. Following adoption of the standards by the association, the board of education began the accrediting of the schools and the publication of accredited lists. It has revised its standards from time to time and continued to publish an annual

accredited list classifying the schools with reference to type.

Music

The National Association of Schools of Music was founded in 1924 as an accrediting organization. Its bylaws provide for institutional membership representing the various types of music schools, and for the accrediting of music schools following an investigation, recommendation of its commission on curricula, and approval of the executive board.

The association has adopted minimum curricula for work leading to the degree of bachelor of music or to the diploma course, and departmental requirements with the various majors, each stated in detail. It issues an annual list of accredited schools of music, classified according to the type of institution, as school, department, or conservatory, and whether the school is independent or is a part of or affiliated with a State-supported college or university or a privately endowed college or university.

The bylaws of the association require the accredited schools to print in their catalogs the statement, the exact wording of which is prescribed for each type of institution, that the school is accredited by the National Association of Music Schools, and the kind of membership carried in the association.

Supplementing the requirements for accrediting, the association has adopted a code of ethics, provided for in the bylaws, which all of its members are expected to observe.

Forestry

The society of American Foresters was founded in 1900. It is a professional organization whose senior membership is composed of professional foresters who have demonstrated competence in their field. By provision of its constitution, junior members shall be graduates of schools of forestry approved by the council of the society, or they shall establish proof that they have a foundation for the pursuit of a professional career in forestry substantially equivalent to the training given in a school of forestry approved by the council.

In order to afford a basis for the admission of graduates of schools of forestry to junior membership, the society in 1935 issued a list of institutions offering approved curricula in forestry. The list was made up after a thorough study of the forestry schools, with particular reference to the factors affecting the efficiency of instruction in four basic fields of work—silviculture, forest management, forest utilization, and forest economics

and policy. Rating was confined to these fields because the work in the several institutions differed so materially.

Attempt was made "to measure in a broad way the degree of distribution attained by the several schools in these four fields, and then to strike an average for all four fields as a basis for classification." Work in each field was graded as A, B, or C, and the schools grouped in these classes on the basis of their distinction. The method of grading the schools was chiefly by determination of, and grading on a percentage basis, the factors affecting instruction. Eighty-five percent of the grade was given in measurable factors affecting the efficiency of instruction; 15 percent in appraising the results of instruction by (a) estimating the efficiency as teachers of the individual members of the faculties; and (b) estimating the efficiency of the graduates as displayed in performance. The standards used were chiefly quantitative. The weights assigned to the various factors to be measured represented the combined judgment of the schools themselves.

Optometry

The American Optometric Association, founded in 1897, and several other bodies later formed, sought to place optometry on a professional basis, but none of them attempted to set up educational standards for rating schools of optometry. The Council of Optometric Education was formed primarily to have some supervision over optometric education, but felt that standards for the schools or for board examinations could not be set up until syllabuses on courses in optometry were adopted. In 1921, however, the American Optometric Association passed a resolution authorizing a conference between representatives of the bodies composed of schools and examiners, including the International Federation of Optometry Schools, The International Association of Boards of Examiners in Optometry, and the Council on Optometric Education of the American Optometric Association, for the purpose of establishing educational standards. The conference met in 1922, and adopted minimum standards for preliminary and optometric education, approved syllabuses in optometric education, and a plan for classifying optometry schools. These standards remained in effect until 1934, when revision was undertaken by the International Association of Boards of Examiners in Optometry.

The International Association of Boards of Examiners in Optometry was formed in 1919. In 1928 it was chartered and adopted a constitution and a set of bylaws, in which its

object was stated to be to unite the various boards of examiners in optometry for the purpose of elevating the standard of optometric education, aiding boards, establishing minimum uniform standards of optometric education, and uniform legislation as a basis for reciprocity in optometric licensure, establishing a standard qualifying examination acceptable to all boards, and rating schools of optometry.

The International Association of Boards of Examiners in Optometry thereby became the recognized agency for standardizing and rating optometry schools. In 1934 the board revised the standards and syllabuses adopted at the 1922 conference and, after a study of the schools of optometry and a comparison of them with schools of other professions, issued a statement of "essentials of an acceptable optometry school or college," outlines of revised syllabuses, and a classification of optometry schools.

The "essentials" contained a provision carrying increased uniform entrance requirements over a period of years—in 1934 not less than graduation from an accredited high school; in 1935, graduation from an accredited high school with courses in certain specified science subjects; and in 1936, graduation from a recognized high school with courses in certain specified science subjects and at least one year in college, in which a science course is pursued.

The board issues an annual list of classified schools.

Engineering

The subject of accrediting engineering colleges was under consideration for 10 years or more before decisive action was taken in the matter. The Society for the Promotion of Engineering Education was the leader in the movement. The setting up of a standard that would be adequate for accrediting all the fields of the profession was a difficult problem to solve. Through the cooperation of the various groups composing the major fields of the profession, however, agreement on a plan of accrediting was finally reached.

In 1932 the American Society of Civil Engineers, the American Institute of Mining and Metallurgical Engineers, the American Society of Mechanical Engineers, the American Institute of Electrical Engineers, and the American Institute of Chemical Engineers (which had been accrediting departments of chemical engineering since 1931), together with the Society for the Promotion of Engineering Education and the National Council of State Boards of Engineering Examiners, formed a body composed of representatives of these groups to be known as the Engineers' Council for Professional Development. In order to carry out the purpose of its organization—the improvement of the status of the engineering profession—the council authorized its committee on engineering schools to formulate criteria for colleges of engineering and to investigate the curricula offered by them, with a view to their accrediting.

The committee first prepared a statement of principles as a basis for accrediting which it submitted to the council and its constituent member organizations. The plan of accrediting involved the approval of individual engineering curricula in each institution, and included both quantitative and qualitative criteria. After securing general approval of the plan the committee visited the institutions that desired inspection, and following visitations covering a period of 2 years, the Engineers' Council for Professional Development, on October 1, 1937, issued a list of 107 institutions offering accredited curricula in engineering. Altogether curricula in 16 fields of engineering were accredited.

Theology

The American Association of Theological Schools, successor to the Conference of Theological Schools and Colleges in the United States and Canada, was organized out of the older conference in 1936 by the adoption of a new constitution. Article VII of the constitution provides for the setting up of a commission on accrediting, and specifies its duties as follows:

"It shall be the duty of the commission on accrediting to institute and maintain a list of accredited theological schools under standards determined by the association."

Upon appointment the Commission on Accrediting Theological Seminaries and Theological Colleges was given "full and final authority to institute and maintain a list of accredited theological seminaries and theological colleges."

During the next 2 years it carried on the work of inspecting such seminaries and colleges as desired to be considered for accrediting, and on June 30, 1938, issued its first report, containing a list of accredited theological schools.

The standards used in accrediting the institutions follow for the most part those of organizations accrediting other types of higher educational institutions. They relate to (1) admission, (2) length of courses and graduation, (3) fields of study and balance of curriculum, (4) faculty, (5) library, (6) equipment, (7) finances, (8) general tone, and (9) inspection.

The report listed 46 accredited theological schools, 3 of which are in Canada. Of this number 11, (1 in Canada) were found to meet all of the standards. The rest fall short of them, some in one particular, others in several. To the names of the latter institutions certain "notations" are appended, according to the number of items in which they were found to be deficient. In explaining its application of the standards to the schools the report says:

"Because of the unique combination of circumstances governing the development of theological schools in the United States and Canada, it was natural and perhaps inevitable that there should be the widest differences between these schools in their organization and manner of work. These schools were not cut to a pattern as they grew, and it is the

last thought in any mind now to try to make them uniform.

"But the association, by its own act, had adopted a statement of minimum standards, and assigned to a commission the duty of administering a policy of accrediting theological schools with these standards as a basis. And it was discovered, as soon as data from individual schools began to be presented in detail to the commission, that very few theological schools meet the standards completely in every particular. The very first problem that confronted the commission was that of dealing both fairly and honestly with these divergencies.

"We have used the term 'notation' as a way of referring to footnotes appended to the list of accredited schools; to indicate that while a school is being accredited, it does not yet adequately safeguard standards of admission or of graduation, or has degree practices not in harmony with the standards, or its library is inadequate, and so forth."

A later report of the commission contains the names of three other accredited schools.

Pharmacy

The American Association of Colleges of Pharmacy, so named in 1925, was organized in 1900 as the American Conference of Pharmaceutical Faculties. As early as 1904 the conference adopted qualifications for colleges seeking membership, which it has since revised from time to time. The advisability of establishing standards for pharmacy colleges also came up for consideration early in the history of the conference, and in 1921 the conference went so far as to draft a schedule for grading the colleges, which, however, it never put to service. Following years of agitation of the subject, the American Association of Colleges of Pharmacy, in 1932, joined with the American Pharmaceutical Association and the National Association of Boards of Pharmacy in organizing a new body, the American Council on Pharmaceutical Education, Inc., and authorized it to study and advise upon the question of establishing standards and of accrediting pharmacy colleges. After 5 years of study and preparation, this body, in 1937, adopted a set of criteria for accrediting which it proceeded at once to apply to the pharmacy colleges desiring to be considered. The criteria contained both quantitative and qualitative provisions, which the council anticipates will need to have constant revision.

Out of the 70 colleges of pharmacy in the United States, 62 made application for accrediting, and 54 were accepted. A general reinspection for checking the status of the institutions will probably not be undertaken before 1944. In the meantime, the colleges contained in the list of accredited institutions published by the council on January 1, 1940 (with the exception of four designated for reinspection in 1942), are to be considered as accredited for the 4 years intervening.

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THIS MONTH'S SUBJECT

Should Federal Aid for Education be Earmarked for Certain Purposes?



The Affirmative

by JOHN GUY FOWLKES

*Professor of Education
University of Wisconsin*

★★★ An acceptable minimum educational opportunity for every boy and girl in the United States is a dream shared by laymen and professional educators. Despite this dream a tremendously large number of citizens in this country have had inadequate school opportunity in their childhood and are unable to get the highly needed school opportunity in their adulthood. School opportunity in rural areas is especially weak, and when it is remembered that the birth rates of rural communities are markedly higher than in urban areas, the educational situation becomes even more serious.



John Guy Fowlkes.

The present educational program is inadequate both with respect to the amount and quality. Thousands of boys and girls of high-school age live in communities where there is no secondary school opportunity and no provision is made for them to get secondary schooling elsewhere. Not only is the amount of school opportunity available inadequate, but the present program is also conspicuously weak in several areas. Some notable instances of inadequacy and weakness in the existing school program are:

1. Teacher qualifications.
2. Length of school term.
3. Organization of school attendance units.
4. Organization of school administrative units.
5. Special services for handicapped children.
6. Educational opportunity for adults.
7. School plant facilities.
8. Physical education.
9. Applied arts.
10. Fine arts.
11. Library services.
12. Guidance services.
13. Health education and health services.
14. Transportation services.

The primary purpose of Federal support for public education is the equalization of educational opportunity. The Federal Government should act as a financial underwriter or guarantor of State educational programs and not as an overindulgent parent giving money without knowing how it is to be spent. Therefore, Federal appropriations without control which guarantees expenditure for the purposes appropriated seem highly unsound.

When Federal funds are appropriated for the support of public education, it seems essential to make sure that a better school opportunity will be available to more children than would have been possible if such Federal appropriations had not been made. Unless Federal appropriations for education are carefully and specifically earmarked, it will be exceedingly difficult if not impossible for the Federal Government to ascertain whether Federal funds for education have been expended towards the real improvement, and,

hence, equalization of school opportunity. Inasmuch as it has been shown that the existing educational opportunity is particularly weak at a number of spots, it seems essential that Federal funds be appropriated specifically for the areas in which the existing program is weakest, in order that the existing minimum program will be raised where it is weakest.

The wanton and woeful mismanagement of the land grants under the act of 1787, the saline grants, the swamp land grants, and the 5-percent fund for schools indicates what happens to nonearmarked funds furnished by Congress. The beneficial operation of the Smith-Hughes, George-Reed, George-Elzey, and George-Deen Acts furnish excellent examples of how a particular area of service has been improved by specific Federal appropriations. Few of those who are familiar with the situation would deny that home economics and agriculture are more generally offered in the high schools located in rural areas than would be the case if special Federal funds had not been provided and earmarked.

A very practical reason for earmarking Federal funds for specific purposes is the established practice of Congress in making appropriations. There seems to be no recent instance of where Congress has made blanket appropriations. To do so would establish a new policy, which policy would be subject to serious question. In light of the preceding discussion, it therefore seems clear that Federal funds for education should be earmarked because:

1. The existing minimum school opportunity is inadequate and deficient.
2. The Federal Government is obligated to help raise the minimum available educational opportunity throughout the country and thereby help to equalize school opportunity throughout the country.
3. There is a relatively large number of areas in which the present school offering is particularly inadequate and weak.
4. The glaring inadequacies, weaknesses, and discrepancies of the present school program are specific and not general.

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Controversial Issues in Education

Discussions of timely controversial issues in education by noted authorities in their respective fields are being presented in *SCHOOL LIFE*, during the school year, as *SCHOOL LIFE's Forum Panel*. In presenting the series, *SCHOOL LIFE* in no way attempts to make decisions upon these controversial issues. It seeks only, through forum technique, to throw light on such issues and to inspire careful thinking on subjects that concern the present and future of education endeavor throughout the Nation.

The Negative

by J. B. EDMONSON,

Dean, School of Education,
University of Michigan

It should be noted that our question, Should Federal aid for education be earmarked for special purposes? does not involve the issue of the desirability of Federal financial aid for education. We are concerned only with earmarking for specific purposes, which raises the issue of the degree of control over education within the States that the Federal Government should exercise when it makes an appropriation. It is conceded that Federal aid for education is sorely needed because of the inequalities of wealth as between the several States. The writer believes, however, that such aid should be made available in terms of large freedom to each State to plan programs in terms of its needs and desires. This freedom cannot be safeguarded under a policy of earmarked funds for some, or all, of a long list of possible fields of educational activities for which Federal aid might be sought. It should also be noted that Federal aid could be granted without Federal control of the kind represented by earmarking for specific purposes. This viewpoint is presented in the recent reports of the Advisory Committee on Education.

Marked Importance

The issue of earmarking for specific purposes is one of marked importance because it involves, if adopted, a policy which would eventually place heavy restrictions on the traditional freedom that States and communities have long enjoyed in framing educational policies. Under the policy of earmarking, if applied to generous grants, our American school system would no longer be the product of thousands of school boards in the 48 States, and the citizens of our numerous communities would no longer have the major respon-

sibility for the determination of important issues affecting schools; because the final control over education would be transferred from the local school districts and the States to the Federal authorities in Washington. Such a transfer of control would doubtless eliminate some of the present weaknesses and deficiencies in the American school system, but the transfer would create other abuses and deficiencies, some of which might prove to be more costly than our present weaknesses.

The case against earmarking may be summarized as follows:

1. Where funds are earmarked for specific purposes, it becomes necessary for the Federal Government to develop machinery reaching from Washington, D. C., to the most remote community. This creates constant pressure from the Federal Government to expand programs, to modify programs, or to curtail programs in terms of the viewpoints of the Federal representatives of earmarked funds. Such pressure would have the effect of destroying the interest of the local authorities in analyzing their own needs and in developing appropriate programs to meet these needs.

2. With the earmarking of funds would come the creation of a body of Federal employees who would have a strong personal incentive for perpetuating the program that was developed through the earmarked funds. The difficulties in effecting changes to meet new needs would be increased by the activity of this body of Federal representatives.

3. If the Federal Government were to earmark for specific educational purposes all future educational appropriations, it would not be long before we would have such a degree of Federal control as would destroy the advantages that have come from our decentralized administration of education. A decentralized administration of education is a most effective



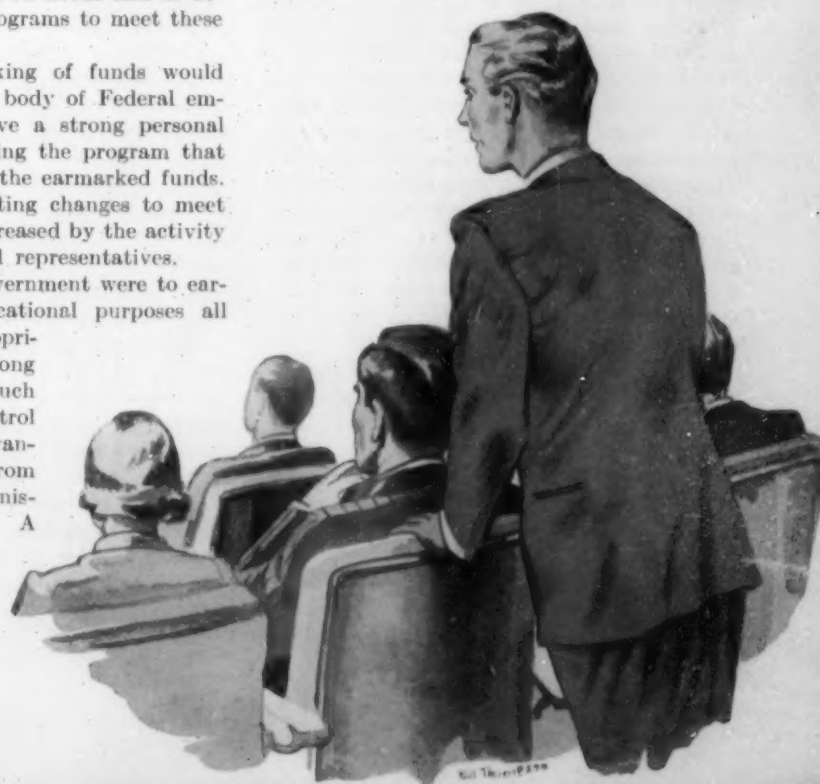
J. B. Edmonson.

means of protecting the people of the United States against regimentation of views and opinions.

4. The earmarking of funds would make it difficult to adjust the educational program to meet the differing needs of States and regional areas. It is common knowledge that there are great differences in the social and economic status of the 48 States and the educational problems of any one State are therefore not the same as those of the other 47.

5. If the Federal Government follows the policy of earmarking its future educational appropriations, a strong incentive will be given to pressure groups to seek to use the Federal authority to force schools to carry

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5. The Federal Government is obligated to take some steps in making sure Federal funds appropriated for public education do help raise the level of available school opportunity.

6. As demonstrated by the Smith-Hughes Act of 1917, the George-Reed Act of 1929, the George-Ellzey Act of 1934, and the George-Deen Act of 1936, the earmarking of Federal appropriations for public education has been proved sound.

7. The nonearmarked Federal appropriations in the forms of the sixteenth section, saline grants, swamp land grants, and the 5-percent fund were badly managed and did not give the financial benefit to public education that was intended.



Mr. Fowlkes' Rebuttal

In order of presentation of the points presented by Dean Edmonson the following refutation is submitted:

1. "Large freedom" in the expenditure of Federal funds appropriated to the various States for public education would allow States to expend such Federal funds in such a way that most needed improvement in certain areas of education would in no way be assured.

2. When Federal appropriations to individual "States" are under discussion, why would it be necessary for the Federal Government to develop machinery reaching from Washington, D. C., to the most remote community? Why should the necessary "Federal machinery" extend beyond the State offices?

3. It seems that the negative has implied that the Federal Government is to meet the total cost of public education. Large Federal appropriations, earmarked for specific purposes, could be made and still ample opportunity be left for desirable individual State initiative and freedom.

4. Meeting the special needs of a given State toward the improvement of its educational program could be achieved by a sound and wise selection of objects of appropriation entirely apart from the question of earmarking.

5. In a democratic country, where professional educators by public announcement pride themselves on the development of leadership, it seems somewhat fatalistic and incongruous to fear the "pressure power" of minority groups. Will the majority body of citizens and educators allow the formulation of unsound fiscal policies in connection with the participation by the Federal Government in the financial support of public education?

6. Neither past nor contemporary history supports the last point offered by the negative. The control of public education has not been in the past, nor is it now of the local unit. Public education is a function of the State. The local community exercises control of public education only as an agent of the State, and in many matters, only in compliance with definitely specific rules and regulations established and enforced by the State.

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out the programs favored by these minority groups. It is conceivable that these pressure groups might succeed in securing Federal assistance for a large part of a school system, with resulting conflict and friction within the schools.

The question, Should Federal funds for education be earmarked for special purposes? raises the issue of the price that should be paid for Federal aid to education. In the writer's judgment, the earmarking of funds entails too great a price in terms of sacrifices of our traditional American educational policies of local control of education.



Mr. Edmonson's Rebuttal

The negative is pleased to note that the affirmative does not dispute the negative's claim that Federal appropriations for education could be secured without earmarking for specific educational purposes. If there were no earmarking, a large freedom could be reserved to the States to determine educational needs and programs. The affirmative, however, doubts the ability of the States to use such freedom wisely. In fact, the major arguments of the affirmative are based on the assumption that the Federal Government is the most competent agency to determine "the most needed improvements in certain areas of education." The negative does not accept this viewpoint, but defends America's traditional dependence on State and local leadership in the determination of educational programs and policies. The affirmative appears to be willing to exchange our traditional decentralized educational system for a system dominated by Federal agencies created by earmarked appropriations.

The affirmative is also highly unrealistic when it declares that such earmarked appropriations could be made and "still ample opportunity be left for desirable individual State initiative and freedom." In making such a statement, the affirmative has disregarded the experience under the earmarked appropriations of the Smith-Hughes Act and has overlooked the fact that a Federal staff administering this act has largely determined the policies governing the use of State as well as local funds for vocational education.

In spite of the optimism of the affirmative, the negative would repeat its warning that minority groups would be likely to write the future educational policies of the United States through pressure on Congress if the Federal Government were committed to the pernicious practice of earmarking its future appropriations for specific purposes.

We are proud of our "folk-made" school system with its large measure of local participation and we should not undermine this system by earmarked appropriations with accompanying Federal control.

Next Month's Forum Subject

Should the School Health Service be Administered by Departments of Education or by Departments of Health?

Affirmative: C. L. Outland, M. D., medical director, Medical Department, Richmond Public Schools, Richmond, Va.

Negative: H. Warren Buckler, chief, Division of School Hygiene, Department of Health, Baltimore, Md.



Professional Schools

(Concluded from page 175)

Other Fields

There are several fields of professional and technical training which support national organizations, membership in which is conditioned upon the maintenance by their institutional members of certain prescribed standards. These standards are similar in content to the standards set up by the accrediting associations, so that the membership lists of these organizations are in effect accredited lists.

Architecture

The collegiate schools of architecture have had a national organization since 1912. Beginning with 10 charter members, the Association of Collegiate Schools of Architecture, in 1914, adopted a set of requirements for an approved school of architecture, and limited future acceptance of members to the schools able to meet the requirements.

As no investigation of the schools had been made since their membership began to ascertain whether they were maintaining the standard of requirements, the association in 1937 began a check-up on its member schools. This investigation has led to a decision to accredit schools of architecture. A factual survey is in progress, with that end in view. Pending the conclusion of the work of accrediting, the association has voted not to consider any further applications for membership nor to take any action against the weaker schools.

The following associations have also adopted bylaws or regulations in which standards for membership are prescribed. The dates following the names of the associations are those on which they were established:

American Association of Collegiate Schools of Business (1916).

American Association of Schools and Departments of Journalism (1917).

American Association of Schools of Social Work (1919).

The American Osteopathic Association (1902), originally known as the American Association for the Advancement of Osteopathy (1897), requires of its members that they be graduates of approved colleges of osteopathy. Six colleges have been approved by the association.

State Support for Public Schools in Minnesota

by Timon Covert, Specialist in School Finances

★★★ Minnesota is now among the group of States which provides from State-wide sources one-third or more of the funds used for the current expenses of their public schools. For a number of years previous to 1933, when legislation was enacted in Minnesota which materially increased the amount of State aid for education, 20 percent or more of the funds for current expenses of the public schools had been coming from the taxpayers of the State as a whole; since that time the amounts of State funds for annual apportionment to the schools have increased from approximately 11 million to nearly 20 million dollars. This article shows the sources from which these funds are derived, the amount from each source, and the methods used by the State in distributing them to the local districts and schools.

Amounts by Sources of State School Funds for Distribution to Local School Administrative Units in Minnesota for the Year 1937-38

Source	Amount
Income from permanent State school fund...	\$3,039,535.35
Proceeds of State 1-mill general property tax...	1,325,090.45
Proceeds of State income tax.....	5,921,281.15
Legislative appropriation from general State fund.....	7,374,000.00

¹ Does not include balances from preceding year.
² Estimated.

Of the 48 States Minnesota has the largest permanent investment fund for the public schools. On June 30, 1938, this fund amounted to \$76,283,778. In addition the State has another investment fund amounting to more than 12 million dollars and allots one-half of the annual proceeds of it to the current needs of the public schools. These funds have been developed from the following sources: (a) Proceeds of the sale of lands granted to the State by the Federal Government, (b) annual yields of the unsold portions of such lands, (c) proceeds of taxes on royalties on ore mined in the State, and (d) profits on the sale of bonds. The permanent school fund also receives 40 percent of the annual proceeds of a 6 percent ad valorem tax on ores mined within the State. Income from these two funds for the public schools amounted to \$3,039,535.25 for the year 1937-38.

A State-wide general property tax of 1 mill on each dollar of the assessed valuation is levied annually for the public schools. This tax yielded \$1,325,090.45 for the year.

An income tax both personal and corporate has been levied since 1933 especially for the public schools. The amount available for the

public schools (the net proceeds), including a balance of \$3,693,544.95 on July 1, 1937, for 1937-38 was \$9,614,826.10.

Authorizations for appropriations from the State's general fund are included in the biennial appropriation acts to supplement the funds derived from the three sources indicated in the foregoing paragraphs. The amount available for the year ended June 30, 1938, was approximately \$7,374,000.

The total amount of State funds available for apportionment to the public schools for the year, including balances from the preceding year, exceeded \$20,000,000.

Apportionment of State Funds to Local School Administrative Units, 1937-38

The State revenues for the public schools are provided for three main purposes: To assist localities in meeting school costs, to promote certain education activities or phases of the education program, and to equalize school costs among the districts of the State. These are sometimes called general, special, and equalization aids, and they will be listed under these headings below.

I. General aids.

(a) The income from the State's permanent school fund (including that part of the income from the second permanent State fund mentioned in the preceding section, which is allotted to the schools) and a part or all of the proceeds of a State 1-mill general property tax for schools form one fund for apportionment. It is apportioned on the basis of average daily attendance during the preceding school year to districts which maintained not less than eight months of school. Amount apportioned on this basis, \$4,006,395.24.

(b) The net proceeds of the State income taxes are apportioned to the respective school districts on the basis of the school census. Funds from this source in the first place must be used by the local districts to retire indebtedness, if any, and the remaining amount then may go to meet current expenses. Amount apportioned on this basis, \$7,808,512.75.

Total general aids, \$11,814,907.99.

II. Special aids

The fund for special aids is derived from legislative appropriation, from the State's general fund plus an amount not to exceed \$500,000 annually which the State Board of Education may transfer from the proceeds of the State one-mill tax for the public schools.

Special aids are provided for a large number of purposes. The law under which these aids

are authorized states that they are to assist in establishing certain minimum standards to assist local taxpayers, to stimulate educational progress, and to provide teacher-training departments in high schools. The various specific purposes and amounts of these aids¹ are as follows:

(a) Classified schools—

1. Ungraded elementary, \$100 per teacher employed for 8 months and \$125 per teacher employed for 9 months. (Limited to \$200 and \$250, respectively, per school per year.)
2. Graded elementary, \$300 and \$400 per school annually depending upon length of term and grades maintained.
3. High schools, amounts vary from \$300 to \$600 depending upon the number of grades offered and other factors. Total, \$1,356,536.*

(b) Vocational education—

1. Agriculture, not to exceed \$500 per school.
 2. Industrial training, not to exceed \$400 per school.
 3. Home training, not to exceed \$400 per school.
 4. Commercial training, not to exceed \$400 per school.
- Total, \$321,166.23.*

(c) Special classes for—

1. Deaf children, \$250 per resident pupil and \$400 per nonresident pupil.
 2. Blind children, \$300 per pupil.
 3. Subnormal children, \$100 per pupil.
 4. Defective speech children, \$1,500 per teacher of such children.
 5. Crippled children, \$250 per pupil.
- Total, \$534,235.*

(d) Superior ungraded elementary schools—\$50 per school maintained (to stimulate progress and achievement in educational work not yet generally achieved). Amount appropriated included under (a) 1 above.

(e) Transportation of pupils—

1. Not to exceed an average of \$36 per pupil transported or boarded in consolidated and certain other districts. Total, \$1,220,768.*
2. Not to exceed \$150 per crippled pupil transported or boarded, total not to exceed \$40,000 per year.

¹ The Minnesota law provides that when sufficient revenue is not available in the State treasury for meeting the full amount of obligations due according to the terms of the program, certain aids are to be prorated; these sums are marked in this article with an asterisk and indicate the amounts of the State's obligations. The amounts apportioned were approximately 60 percent of the obligations.

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New Government Aids FOR TEACHERS

by MARGARET F. RYAN, Editorial Assistant



FREE PUBLICATIONS: Order free publications and other free aids listed from agencies issuing them
COST PUBLICATIONS: Request only cost publications from the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C.
enclosing remittance (check or money order) at time of ordering

(The free supply is usually too limited to permit of furnishing copies for all members of classes or other groups)

● Traveling exhibits on *How Prints Are Made*, illustrating the various processes of the graphic arts, such as silk-stencil printing, etching, lithography, mezzotinting, roto-gravure, and water-color printing, are maintained by the Division of Graphic Arts of the United States National Museum for the use of schools, colleges, public libraries, museums, and other organizations. One of the exhibits includes the picture of the printing press shown on this page which was used by Benjamin Franklin in London in 1726.

Each exhibit may be borrowed for a month. The only expense to be borne by the exhibitor is the shipping cost from the previous exhibitor.

For information regarding routing, exhibit dates, etc., write to the Division of Graphic Arts, United States National Museum, Washington, D. C.

● All farm houses should provide shelter and space for cooking, eating, sleeping, child care, leisure activities, storage, household tasks, and certain kinds of work that are more or less peculiar to farm life, according to a recent study of the Department of Agriculture, *Housing Requirements of Farm Families in the United States*, in which the general requirements of farmhouses and regional variations in housing requirements are discussed. 10 cents.

● At the request of Senator David I. Walsh, of Massachusetts, Chairman of the Naval Affairs Committee, a bulletin was prepared on the history of the United States Coast Guard Academy, the entrance requirements, course of instruction, and service after graduation. For a copy, send 20 cents to the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C., and ask for Senate Document No. 81, 76th Congress, 1st Session.

● The *Index to Volume V of the Consumers' Guide*, April 1938-March 1939, is available free from the Consumers' Counsel Division of the Agricultural Adjustment Administration, Washington, D. C.

● Trade with India during the twentieth century and its part in the development of the people of India is outlined in *The United States in India's Trade*, Trade Promotion Series No. 200, of the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce. 20 cents. The unique features of the Indian market are pointed out, and a folded map of India showing the railroads and trade routes is enclosed with the bulletin.

● Shirts for men and boys vary so little in style that most of the differences in quality are in the material, accuracy of cut, workmanship, and comfort of fit. The Department of Agriculture has prepared a bulletin *Cotton Shirts for Men and Boys*, Farmers' Bulletin No. 1837, in which these points are taken up. Copies are available free.

● Most families spend between 25 and 40 percent of their income for food, according to *Diets of Employed Workers*, a recent study made by the Department of Agriculture of the expenditures for food by families of wage earners and low-salaried clerical workers, of the quantities of different kinds of food purchased, and of the nutritive adequacy of diets. Circular 507. 15 cents.

● A summary of laws passed by States and by Congress pertaining to dependent and neglected children, adoption, marriage, child labor and compulsory school attendance, mental defectives, etc., has been prepared by the Children's Bureau under the title *Child-Welfare Legislation, 1938*, Children's Bureau Publication No. 251. 10 cents.



Early Printing Press.

● Up to 1937, minerals to the value of more than \$749,000,000, or more than 100 times the purchase price of the Territory of Alaska, have been produced from the mines of Alaska, according to *Mineral Industry of Alaska in 1937*, Geological Survey Bulletin 910-A. 35 cents.

The bulletin summarizes current and past conditions and indicates trends in the production of gold, silver, copper, lead, platinum, metals, tin, coal, and other miscellaneous mineral products in Alaska.

A folded map of Alaska is enclosed in a pocket at the end of the bulletin.

● The history, vulcanization, production, manufacture, statistical record, and social uses of rubber are to be found in Trade Promotion Series No. 197, *Rubber Industry of the United States, 1839-1939* (10 cents).

● Dry skim milk, according to a free 8-page folder issued by the Bureau of Home Economics, has practically the same food value as fresh skim milk. It provides the protein, calcium and other minerals, milk sugar, and vitamins B and G of milk. Only the fat, vitamin A, and water are removed from whole milk in the preparation of dry skim milk. Recipes are given for using dry skim milk in soups and chowders, creamed and scalloped dishes, for hot and cold cereals, in yeast bread, rolls, and cake, in quick breads and cookies, and in desserts and beverages.

● Addresses and informal discussions at the initial session of the Fourth White House Conference on Children, held in Washington, D. C., April 26, 1939, may be had for 20 cents. The other three White House Conferences were held in 1909, 1919, and 1930.

● The United States produces more than 75 percent of the world's total production of sulphur. The Bureau of Mines has prepared a two-reel motion-picture film visualizing the production and uses of this mineral. Copies of the film in both 16- and 35-millimeter size may be had for exhibition by schools, churches, colleges, civic and business organizations, and others interested. Applications for the film should be addressed to the Bureau of Mines Experiment Station, 4800 Forbes Street, Pittsburgh, Pa., and should state the width of film desired. No charge is made for the use of the film, although the exhibitor is expected to pay transportation charges.

Children in a Democracy

by Olga A. Jones, Editor in Chief, U. S. Office of Education

★★★ Educational aspects of the recent White House Conference on Children in a Democracy¹ centered for the most part around "Education Through the School," 1 of the 11 major subjects with which the conference dealt.

The 10 other subjects included democracy as it concerns the family, economic resources of families and communities, housing, economic aid, social services, children in minority groups, religion, health and medical care, child labor and youth employment, and leisure time services.

The education report set forth that the public school must acquaint the child with the responsibilities and privileges of living in a democracy. It urged "education for citizenship, for family life, for health, for leisure, for a vocation, and for responsible living." It further emphasized that such education is possible since good teaching and good school administration are "purchasable commodities" as are adequate school facilities.

The conference went on record to the effect that follow-up work be started at once and that responsibility for national leadership be placed in a National Citizens' Committee of approximately 15 to 25 members and a Federal Inter-Agency Committee. The conference chairman, Frances Perkins, Secretary of Labor, has announced appointment of five persons to take responsibility for organizing the National Committee, as follows:

Homer Folks, secretary, State Charities Aid Association, New York City; Mrs. Saidie Orr Dunbar, president, General Federation of Women's Clubs, Washington, D. C.; William G. Carr, secretary, The Educational Policies Commission, National Education Association, Washington, D. C.; Rev. Bryan J. McEntegart, director, Division of Children, Catholic Charities of the Archdiocese of New York, New York City; and Henry F. Helmholtz, M. D., professor of pediatrics, Graduate School, University of Minnesota.

The general conference report stated, in regard to schools: "The fundamental purposes of the American schools are sound. Their successes and shortcomings in attaining these purposes are well known. The Advisory Committee on Education, the Educational Policies Commission, the United States Office of Education, the American Youth Commission, and many other agencies have revealed the present situation and recent changes. Of the

75,000,000 adults in the United States, about 36,000,000 did not finish elementary school. Nearly a million children of elementary school age are not in school. The school opportunities of hundreds of thousands of children of migrant and rural families and of Negroes are often deplorable or entirely absent.

"National resources for increasing opportunities and for reducing inequalities in education are not lacking. Nevertheless, there are

Our Personal Concern

You, all the members of the Conference, have charted a course, a course for 10 years to come. Nevertheless, the steps that we take now, in this year of 1940, are going to determine how far we can go tomorrow, and in what direction.

I believe with you that if anywhere in the country any child lacks opportunity for home life, for health protection, for education, for moral or spiritual development, the strength of the Nation and its ability to cherish and advance the principles of democracy are thereby weakened.

I ask all our fellow citizens who are within the sound of my voice to consider themselves identified with the work of this Conference. I ask you all to study and discuss with friends and neighbors the program that it has outlined, to study how its objectives can be realized. May the security and the happiness of every boy and girl in our land be our concern, our personal concern, from now on.

You, the members of this Conference, this Conference on Children in a Democracy, you are leaders of a new American Army of peace.

From the address of President Roosevelt broadcast from the White House in connection with the White House Conference on Children in a Democracy.

communities in this country that compared with other communities, have twice the child population in proportion to adults but only one-fifth the amount of income per school child. The resources of many school districts and even of entire States and regions cannot keep pace with the needs of the school population or provide suitable standards of educational efficiency."

Conference Proposals

The conference proposed that:

1. Units of local school attendance and administration should be enlarged in order to

broaden the base of financial support and to make possible a modern school for every child at a reasonable per capita cost.

2. Substantial financial assistance should be granted by every State to its local school systems for the purpose of equalizing tax burdens and reducing educational inequalities.

3. An extended program of Federal financial assistance to the States should be adopted in order to reduce inequalities in educational opportunity among States.

4. The supreme educational and social importance of individual traits should be recognized throughout the educational system. An educational system which truly serves a democracy will find no place for the philosophy or the methods of mass production.

5. Teachers and other workers in all branches of education shall be selected and retained in service on the basis of professional qualifications alone and they should be adequate in number to permit them to give attention to the needs of each individual child.

6. The professional education of teachers should be enriched by study of the principles of child development, the role of education in an evolving social order, and the significance of democratic procedures in school life.

7. School systems should provide nursery school, kindergarten, or similar educational opportunities for children between the ages of 3 and 6.

8. School systems should provide educational opportunities for youth up to 18 or 20 years of age, either in preparation for higher education, in basic and specialized vocational training, or in general educational advancement.

9. Schools should provide systematic personal and vocational guidance and organized assistance in job placement.

10. School health supervision and health education should be made more effective.

11. Schools should assume further responsibility for providing wholesome leisure-time activities for children and their families.

12. Education for civic responsibility should be emphasized in order to develop a firm, active, and informed loyalty to democratic ideals and institutions. To do this effectively, the child's learning experiences should include participation in the activities of community life, on a level appropriate to his degree of maturity.

13. Schools should give increased attention to the needs of children who are physically handicapped or mentally retarded.

14. Schools should cooperate with other community institutions and agencies that

¹ The conference report to be published in the near future will incorporate additions and revisions made during the conference, and editorial changes made by the staff and report committee.

serve the child. Close cooperation with parents is especially important.

Included in the summary of recommendations on education is the statement that "Continued progress necessitates research and planning for the better education of the child." In this part of the report it is asserted that there is need for establishment of research divisions by local school systems, wherever possible, and by all State departments of education; increased budgets for the United States Office of Education to permit the extension of research and related services; and planning of educational policies and programs at all levels based on the findings of research.

Democracy Challenged

In speaking before the conference Mrs. Franklin D. Roosevelt said: "Democracy is being challenged today, and we are the greatest democracy. It remains to be seen if we have the vision and the courage and the self-sacrifice to really give our children a chance all over the Nation to be really citizens of a democracy. If we are going to do that we must see that they get a chance at health, that they get a chance at an equal opportunity for education. We must see that they get a chance at the kind of education which will help them to meet a changing world. We must see that as far as possible these youngsters when they leave school get a chance to work and get a chance to be taken in and to feel important as members of their communities.

"I think there is nothing else as developing as responsibility, and for that reason I think it is well for us to try to bring home to every one of our citizens the fact that our young people must be given an opportunity to feel a real responsibility in their communities.

"I always feel that it's a pity we don't some of us retire from some of our responsibilities and turn them over to younger people in our communities. We learned by doing and they will learn by doing, too, and I hope that from this conference there will come a knowledge throughout the country of the needs of young people and willingness on the part of more and more people to take a national point of view and a national sense of responsibility for the young people of the Nation who will some day make the Nation."

Previous White House Conferences

Three previous White House Conferences on Children have been held—the first in 1909, the second in 1919, and the third in 1930. The initial conference, according to Mrs. Saidie Orr Dunbar, president, General Federation of Women's Clubs, who presented plans for Nation-wide consideration and action of the 1940 conference, gave impetus to the mothers' pension movement and the movement for the establishment of the United States Children's Bureau. The 1919 conference adopted child-welfare standards and stimulated efforts for health protection,

child-labor regulation, and protection of children suffering from individual or social handicaps such as the physically handicapped, the dependent, and the delinquent. The 1930 conference adopted the Children's Charter, constituting a declaration of the rights of American children, and laid the foundations for developments in many fields.

The recent conference was attended by representatives of more than 150 national organizations. Its officers included:

Honorary Chairman, The President of the United States; Honorary Vice Chairman, Mrs. Franklin D. Roosevelt; Chairman, Frances Perkins, Secretary of Labor; Vice Chairmen, Milburn L. Wilson, Homer Folks, Frank P. Graham, Henry F. Helmholtz, M. D., Rt. Rev. Msgr. Robert F. Keegan, Jacob Kepcs, Josephine Roche; Executive Secretary, Katharine F. Lenroot; Assistant Secretary, Emma O. Lundberg; Research Director, Philip Klein.

Heavy Enrollment



One Thousand Three Hundred and Eighty Men Assembled in the School Auditorium to Enroll in Night Courses.

Like the New York City Board of Education the Buffalo board decided not to open its evening schools in the fall because of a shortage of funds. However, on January 2 the evening school was opened and 1,380 men swarmed into the auditorium of the Burgard Vocational High School to register for courses which will run for the next 12 weeks. Registration also was held at 23 other school buildings in the city with a total enrollment reported of 5,519. This large enrollment was interpreted by R. Pratt Krull, associate superintendent in charge of extension education, as reflecting the popularity of the work being offered especially in vocational subjects.

In the October issue of *SCHOOL LIFE* was published an article entitled "A Busy Day at Burgard," by J. C. Wright, Assistant Commissioner for Vocational Education. In this article a first-hand description of enrollment day for Buffalo boys over 14 years of age who wished to enter the school in the fall was presented. On that occasion 1,100 boys began lining up at 3:30 a. m. so as to

be first in line since word had gone out that the school would have room for only 400 freshmen.

"One could safely say that probably 80 percent of the faces of those registering for the evening classes are those of men young enough to have experienced the hardships of unemployment during the depression. Many of them have faced the difficulty confronting all youth trying to get a job, but who are untrained for the kind of work which employers have to do," Dr. Wright points out.

According to William B. Kamprath, principal of the Burgard Vocational High School, an analysis of the firms represented by the employers of these young men shows that the school is serving 485 different industrial organizations in the city of Buffalo. Of the 1,231 who were finally enrolled in evening classes all but 209 were permanently employed. The average age of those attending is 24 years. To accommodate those on a long waiting list additional classes have been opened up from 5 to 7 p. m., in which several hundred have been enrolled.

Control of Higher Education

by John H. McNeely, Senior Specialist in Higher Education

★★★ The development of State supported higher education in the United States has been characterized by a gradual multiplication in the number of State-supported institutions. Recent changes in methods of control in the different States for the most part represent an endeavor to integrate the institutions into a coordinated higher educational system within the State.

In the early days when the State first ventured into a higher educational field, only a single institution, such as a State university, was established in the case of many of the States. Control of the university was vested in a governing board of trustees or regents. Later, additional institutions were founded in response to public demands and educational exigencies. In general, the new institutions were of different types and were established to perform different functions than the already existing State university. Among these institutions were agricultural and mechanic arts colleges, normal schools, teachers colleges, technological schools and the like.

With the establishment of these different types of institutions, the common practice of the States was to create a separate board of control for each of them. The result was that the States gradually developed a multiplicity of boards governing a large number of higher educational institutions. A further outcome was that the various institutions, although originally established to perform different functions, expanded over the period of years until many of them were conducting in part at least the same or similar functions. Hence, duplication and overlapping came into existence among the State-supported institutions.

Movement to Modify

Within the past two decades, this situation has become so acute that a strong movement has manifested itself among the States to modify their methods of control of the institutions. This movement has been especially accentuated during the industrial depression. The modified methods adopted by the States consisted of the establishment of either complete or partial unified control of the institution. Where complete unified control was established all the State higher educational institutions were placed under a single governing board, the existing separate boards for each institution being abolished. In establishing partial unified control a single board was designated to govern institutions of certain types in the States while the other institutions were continued under separate boards.

The policies of the States in adopting complete or partial unified control vary from State to State. Similarly, where the States have established partial unified control, the types of institutions placed under a single board differ. In the accompanying diagram are shown the existing methods of control found in the several States including States which have made no changes in recent years as well as those which have.

The results of the complete or partial unified control under a single board have not been as fruitful as was expected in eliminating duplication or overlapping and in effecting a coordinated State higher educational system. This may be attributed in part to the fact that the fundamental methods of controlling the institutions were not materially altered. The single boards governing all or some of the State institutions consisted of lay members unacquainted with the details of educational administration. Presidents of each of the institutions continued to make recommendations to the single central board in much the same manner as they had previously reported to their separate boards. In governing the affairs of each institution the single board was naturally required to depend upon the recommendations of their presidents.

Financial Support

There was little or no change in the procedure of obtaining financial support from the State. The budgets of the several institutions were submitted separately to the single board by their presidents. In revising the budgets it was again necessary to depend upon the advice of the presidents. The budgets of the institutions were then usually submitted

separately to the State legislature by the board. Friends of each of the institutions then proceeded to exert influence and pressure on the legislature to secure its particular appropriation just as when they were controlled by separate boards.

In order to overcome these difficulties, further steps toward a more complete unification of control have been taken in a number of States. These steps provided for:

(1) An executive officer or chancellor of the State higher educational institutions appointed by and serving directly under the single board. This officer is vested with central executive authority in administering the State's program of higher education as a whole and serves as an intermediary between the presidents of the several institutions and the board. He possesses the necessary powers after approval by the board to coordinate the activities of the institutions.

(2) A lump-sum appropriation made by the State legislature to the single board for the support of all the State higher educational institutions rather than individual appropriations to each of them. The board is empowered to allocate or distribute the appropriation to the several institutions. Under this arrangement the board is in a position to control the functions performed by each institution through the granting or withholding of funds.

The States having an executive officer or chancellor of State higher education are Georgia, Montana, New York, North Carolina, North Dakota, and Oregon. In North Carolina the executive officer is the president of only three of the State's institutions, the

(Concluded on page 188)

Existing methods of control of State institutions of higher education in several States

All State institutions governed by single board	All State institutions except State university governed by single board ¹	All State teachers colleges or normal schools governed by single board	All agricultural and mechanic arts colleges governed by single board	State university, agricultural and mechanic arts college, and woman's college governed by single board	All State junior colleges governed by single board	Each State institution governed by separate board
Florida Georgia Idaho Iowa Kansas Mississippi Montana Nevada ² New York ⁴ North Dakota Oregon Rhode Island South Dakota Wyoming ³	California Connecticut Illinois Louisiana Maine Maryland Minnesota Nebraska New Hampshire Pennsylvania Tennessee Vermont West Virginia	Alabama ¹ Colorado Indiana Massachusetts Michigan New Jersey Oklahoma ² Texas Virginia ¹ Wisconsin	Oklahoma Texas	North Carolina	Utah	Arizona Arkansas Delaware Kentucky Missouri New Mexico Ohio South Carolina Washington

¹ The only institutions other than the State university in Connecticut, Illinois, Maine, Maryland, Minnesota, Nebraska, New Hampshire, Pennsylvania and Vermont are teachers colleges or normal schools.

² The single board also governs the State's Negro college in addition to the teachers college.

³ Nevada and Wyoming have only one institution, a State university.

⁴ In New York divided responsibility exists between the single board and other special boards in governing certain State colleges or schools operated in conjunction with privately controlled institutions.



THE VOCATIONAL SUMMARY

by C. M. ARTHUR, *Research Specialist, Vocational Division*



Intensive but Comprehensive

"One of the problems with which those responsible for promoting vocational education in a new field are confronted," says Louise Bernard, assistant State supervisor of distributive education for Virginia, "is that of finding teachers who are trained to give instruction in the field. This is particularly true in the case of distributive education. The only persons equipped to train teachers in this field are those who are already employed in personnel divisions of the larger retail stores."

Virginia is solving its teacher-training problem in the distributive education field, Miss Bernard points out, through a course for prospective teacher-trainers started in 1937 at the School of Store Service Education, Richmond Professional Institute, College of William and Mary. This school offers a highly specialized, concentrated course of 9 months' duration to graduates of accredited colleges and to persons with a wide background of experience in retail stores. The organization of the course, Miss Bernard explains, is such that graduates are fully qualified to teach in the State program or to hold an executive position in the field of distribution.

Students attending the institute are taught store organization and management, personnel administration, planning and control, display, promotion, advertising, and merchandise information, with special emphasis upon textiles. Experts in these fields from Richmond stores talk with students from time to time and students use these stores as laboratories. They spend several hours each week observing specialized selling and nonselling departments in the stores, and during a 5-week period preceding Christmas in which all classroom work is suspended, they occupy temporary positions as junior executives in merchandising or nonselling divisions in the stores.

With this experience as a background students are ready to concentrate on teacher-training experience. For this experience they go back again into the stores as teachers in training departments. They hold classes for store employees during store working hours in which they teach merchandise information and other phases of retailing in which stores feel their employees need training. In addition, they have the unusual opportunity of doing practice teacher-training work as temporary employees of the distributive education division of the Virginia State Board of Education.

Through Miss Bernard, who is assistant supervisor of distributive education in the State as well as director of the School of Store Service Education, arrangements are made for students to work directly with teachers of evening classes for workers in distributive occupations, established by the State board for vocational education in Richmond. Student teachers

help collect and organize teaching material, participate in demonstrations of different phases of retail-store work, and take charge of attendance records, physical arrangement of classrooms, and similar matters. Added to all this, also, is the experience Store Service School students get in teaching cooperative class pupils in the high schools under the supervision of the coordinator of the Richmond Public Schools.

Five graduates of the School of Store Service Education are now employed as coordinators of distributive education courses in various sections of the State, and one is a teacher-trainer at the Store Service Education School.

No Need to Look

That vocational schools over the country are doing efficient work in training persons for various occupations and that they are being called upon to supply workers for specific trades is attested by reports which reach the United States Office of Education from time to time. A recent report from the Wyoming State Trade School at Laramie, Wyo., brings additional evidence of the effectiveness of such training and the need for it.

The Laramie school offers a 2-year course in auto mechanics, Diesel engine mechanics, and welding to young men from various sections of the State who desire to become proficient in these occupations. Evening classes are offered, also, for those already employed in these three types of work.

Road construction companies and freight trucking concerns, Wyoming vocational educational authorities report, are asking for Diesel mechanics trained by the school. A Minneapolis construction firm has offered to take Diesel mechanics as soon as they have finished their training.

The school has established a library which provides up-to-date service information on all cars, trucks, and tractors manufactured in the United States. Manufacturers of different materials pertaining to the three trades taught in the school are asked to hold their shows and clinics at the school so that those enrolled in the trade classes may become familiar with various materials and parts and the companies with the type of service and training offered in the school.

"It will be unnecessary," the Laramie report says, "to look for jobs for graduates of our school, as trades and industries are constantly asking for their services."

At present, the school has a considerable waiting list, some of those included on the list being from States other than Wyoming.

It Set Them Thinking

The history of livestock breeds and farm crops, the botany of plants, how flour is made,

and similar subjects may be interesting, but they are not essential in the high-school vocational agriculture course, Montana farmers believe.

Vocational agriculture courses for farm boys, these fathers of boys feel, should be confined to those subjects the practical farmer makes use of in his farming operations. These opinions were expressed by farmers reached through a study made recently by D. L. MacDonald, assistant supervisor of agricultural education in Montana.

"The object of the study," Mr. MacDonald explains, "was to discover what farm operators and managers believe to be the most essential skills to be taught in vocational agriculture classes in Montana."

In making the study, a questionnaire covering 136 skills and managerial jobs that a farmer has to do in the daily and seasonal operation of his farm, was used. Included in this list, also, were a few exercises commonly taught in the vocational agriculture classroom. The questionnaires—387 of them—were sent to 29 vocational agriculture departments in high schools of Montana, for distribution to farmers whose sons were attending vocational agriculture classes. Two hundred and eighty-two questionnaires were returned. Nine of these were discarded because of irregularities in filling them out, leaving 273, or 70.5 percent of the number sent out, to be used in the study.

Replies to these questionnaires are interesting. Veterinary jobs, it seems, are considered important by nearly all Montana farmers, as is shown by the fact that they place 12 of the 15 jobs of this type at the head of their recommendations. Treatments for bloat, lice, milk fever, worms, footrot, and vaccinating against various maladies are jobs which farmers think should be taught in vocational agriculture courses.

Other jobs in the order of importance attached to them by Montana farmers are: Selecting male and female breeding stock; feeding livestock; sheep jobs of various kinds, not including castrating and docking, which most farmers seem to think should be done by specialists; hitching large teams of horses; jobs involved in live-at-home programs, including butchering, curing pork, gardening, and storing garden truck and potatoes; farm crop production, which includes farm machinery adjustment, control of weeds and insects, selection of crop varieties, identification and control of crop diseases, maintaining soil fertility, and types and properties of soils; conservation jobs of various kinds—irrigating, operation of farm level, and soil and water conservation; marketing; and farm management.

The findings secured from Mr. MacDonald's

study have set Montana vocational agriculture teachers thinking. Out of it, also, have grown definite recommendations regarding the subject matter to be included in vocational agriculture courses.

Cashing In

What home economics training can do in helping girls to earn a livelihood is illustrated by the experience of a group of seniors who pursued a special course in the Wilcox County (Ala.) High School last year. These girls, it should be explained, had already completed 3 years of the regular homemaking course offered in the school. The objective of the special course was to enable the girls to capitalize on a dollar-and-cents basis on their homemaking courses.

The first week of the course was spent in studying vocational opportunities for home economics students to earn a livelihood or to supplement the family earnings. Following one of the leads obtained in this study, the instructor gave a special course in making fancy jellies from apples and pears, which were plentiful at the time, and putting them up in attractive containers. These jellies sold.

There followed in succession instruction in dressmaking, as a part of which the students made fall clothing for themselves out of both new and old materials; in making Christmas decorations, toys and confections; in making slip covers, pine and reed baskets, woven materials; in crocheting rugs of various materials; in knitting sweaters; and in planning and putting on banquets.

Each girl was required to elect a 150-hour project in some activity in which she was interested. Dressmaking, preparing salable foods, and handicrafts were among the projects chosen.

The Advisory Committee Again

Additional evidence of the value of the counsel of advisory committees in planning, establishing, and operating trade and industrial training programs appears in the annual report of the State director for vocational education for Missouri, Lloyd W. King, to the Office of Education. In this report Mr. King says:

"The combination of opinions of advisory committees from 4 city schools and 24 other centers, formulated our plans for the State trade and industrial program. The trade and industrial program is designed to teach boys and girls how to earn a living. The advisory committee and teachers or administrator in charge of local programs have endeavored to keep these programs from losing their way and becoming simply additional units in the school system. Only by constant evaluation from within and periodic examination from without can a program become vocationally sound."

Agent for Women Appointed

Louise Moore, who has had a wide experience in teaching and executive work as an

educator, in personnel work, in welfare work, and in research, has been appointed special agent for women and girls, Trade and Industrial Service, Office of Education, succeeding Mrs. Anna Lalor Burdick, retired.

Miss Moore was born in Iowa, received her early education in the public schools of that State, and was graduated from Wellesley College with the degree of bachelor of arts. She holds the master of science degree from Simmons College also.

Immediately after her graduation from college, Miss Moore served as principal of



Louise Moore—Recently Appointed Special Agent for Women and Girls, Trade and Industrial Service, U. S. Office of Education.

the Dexter, Iowa, High School, and later as a teacher in the West Des Moines, Iowa, High School. Subsequently she engaged in research as a fellow and assistant director in the research department of the Women's Educational and Industrial Union, Boston. Her research work in this position involved a study of Massachusetts' trade schools for girls and a follow-up study of pupils trained in these institutions. These studies were made for the United States Department of Labor on behalf of groups sponsoring the Smith-Hughes National Vocational Education Act, then under consideration by Congress.

After completing her work with the Women's Educational and Industrial Union in Boston, Miss Moore came to Washington as library research assistant in the United States Department of Labor and later became

child labor inspector for the Children's Bureau of the Department under the first Federal child labor law. During the World War, she acted as assistant in the State council section, Council of National Defense.

Miss Moore's work in the field of personnel began with her appointment after the war as personnel director of a manufacturing concern in Poughkeepsie, N. Y., where she developed various methods for selecting employees and training them for their work. Her service with the New York firm was followed by service in a similar capacity with a prominent manufacturing company in Kansas City, Mo. From this position she returned to Poughkeepsie as assistant to the city director of public welfare there, in which position she helped to organize the work in emergency relief.

Miss Moore came to Washington from a position with a New York industrial engineering firm, where she was responsible for the organization and development of personnel and training activities for foremen and workers.

The Roster Grows

New names are being added to the roster of States which have formulated plans for State divisions of occupational information and guidance or have appointed supervisors in this field.

The plans drawn up for programs of occupational information and guidance under Federal reimbursement in Georgia, Maine, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, North Carolina, Pennsylvania, and the Island of Puerto Rico have already been accepted by the United States Office of Education; other States which are considering plans for a guidance service are: North Dakota, Rhode Island, and Missouri.

Two States—New York and Vermont—had set up programs of guidance not reimbursed from Federal funds and had appointed State guidance supervisors prior to the establishment of the Occupational Information and Guidance Service in the United States Office of Education.

Kansas and Wyoming have recently set up nonreimbursed programs.

The first State to appoint a supervisor of occupational information and guidance was Maryland. R. Floyd Cromwell has been appointed to this office with headquarters at the State department of education, Baltimore. Following are the names of those who have been appointed supervisors of occupational information and guidance, the States they represent, and their addresses:

S. Marion Justice, State Department of Education, Raleigh, N. C.

Carl M. Horn, State Department of Education, Lansing, Mich.

Winston Riley, Insular Board of Education, San Juan, Puerto Rico.

George P. Haley, State Department of Education, Boston, Mass.

A Modern English Program

(Concluded from page 164)

the classroom teacher is that of repeating experiments carried out by others, using the same techniques. Take, for example, the experiment carried on in a city school system in which the 50 language errors most commonly heard in that community were organized into written tests given at the beginning and end of a 4-week experimental period to groups of elementary children divided, as the experimenter says, into groups of "approximately equal size and ability." In the interval between tests the following types of methods were used: In the first group the errors made were explained but no specific work was done upon them. In the second group correction of errors was intensified in relation to the regular work of the grade. Drill games were used in the third group. The fourth group attacked errors by dramatizing them in plays, and by devising and carrying out programs. In the fifth group pupils and teachers reported and listed errors observed and placed the correct forms on the blackboard. In the sixth group pupils were furnished with lists of the errors made by their group, and with the teacher they planned remedial projects. A census of opinion taken among the reading audience would perhaps result in the selection of the method used in group 6 which brought best results as measured by the differences between scores on the tests given at the beginning and end of the experiment.

A Basic Experience

A challenge to elementary teachers as embodied in *A Modern English Program for Modern Schools* resolves itself into an analysis of current practices, and recommendations for further study. It is necessary to recognize certain factors which influence the success of English teaching such as present standards of use, the tendency to make English a "common carrier" for all school experiences, the present needs and interests of the children, the provision for individual differences, and the use of scientific studies. The classroom teacher may measure the extent to which she uses the "common carrier" by keeping an informal record of the diary or chart type on which she lists as they occur the situations in which English makes a contribution to the school program, together with some estimate of the further needs for practice in the skills involved, on the part of the children in her group. It is by such concrete means that teachers can reach a higher level of effectiveness in making English function in the whole school program.

Some 1939 Publications in the Field of Elementary School English

Brueckner, L. J. Language: The Development of Ability in Oral and Written Composition. *Child Development and the Curriculum*,

pp. 225-240. Thirty-eighth yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I. Public School Publishing Co., 1939.

Hartman, Gertrude and Shumaker, Ann. Editors. *Creative Expression*. E. M. Hale & Co., 1939. Second edition. 350 p.

Leonard, J. Paul. The Language Arts-English, pp. 118-127. *The Implications of Research for the Classroom Teacher*. Joint Yearbook of the American Educational Research Association and the Department of Classroom Teachers. N. E. A., 1939.

McKee, Paul. *Language in the Elementary School*. Revised. Houghton Mifflin, 1939. 500 p.

National Conference on Research in English. *Handbook of English for Boys and Girls*. Scott Foresman, 1939. 128 p.

Rasmussen, Carrie. *Choral Speaking for Speech Improvement*. Expression Co., 1939. 93 p.

Seegers, J. Conrad. *Vocabulary Problems in the Elementary School*. Scott Foresman, 1939. 60 p.

The Elementary English Review. Vol. XVI.



Education in Turkey

(Concluded from page 169)

of a change of script and it has rendered a similar service to the European students studying the euphonious speech and literature of Turkey. The Turkish people at large benefit enormously by having to study the simple Latin alphabet instead of spending so many hours mastering the difficulties of the old script.

Last, but not least, of all the reforms instituted is the emancipation of the women of



Physical education for girls.

Turkey, who have now won political and social equality with men and have proved their capacities in many fields.

The Children's Reading Room and Library (Çocuklar Okuma Odası) at Istanbul is open to children from primary schools after their school hours, where they read, study, and often hear lectures dealing with reading and health. It is the only children's library in Turkey, but there is a project to establish such libraries throughout the country.

The Municipal school called Refuge for Young Boys (Çocuklar Kurtarma Yurdu) at Galata, Istanbul, is founded for homeless boys, many of whom were tobacco fiends and opium addicts.

Prior to 1923 the population was largely illiterate and the effort to reduce illiteracy has taken an important place in the educational program. Primary instruction and training in trades have been given to conscript soldiers. In 1932 there were inaugurated throughout the country "People's Houses" (Halk evleri). These are institutions of mass education, supplementing the schools and aiming to eliminate illiteracy. They are well equipped with libraries. In the course of the last year more than 8,000,000 persons took part in the courses, conferences, concerts, and theatrical performances organized by the "People's Houses."

Summarized below are the statistics on education in Turkey for the school year 1938-39.

Types of schools	Number of—				
	Schools	Students		Teachers	
		Total	Women	Total	Women
Kindergarten....	9	1,810	762	63	63
Elementary.....	8,133	823,057	277,450	16,987	5,458
Middle.....	148	97,274	24,653	3,201	1,065
Lyceums.....	69	25,569	5,824	1,577	339
Continuation.....	196				
Normal.....	17	2,550	1,539	262	114
Professional.....	46	8,908	2,798	675	198
Universities and special schools..	13	12,779	1,960	709	60
Total.....	8,631	971,947	314,986	23,474	7,317



Medical Inspection

(Concluded from page 167)

cated process but the essential for good nutrition is good feeding, and the feeding should be done in the home in order that all the family may benefit.

For the reduction of communicable diseases in school we have to depend, as we have always had to depend, on the teacher, for no one else sees the child daily and hourly. We have already mentioned the need for her preparation for noting the signs that something is wrong with the child.

Lastly, to make the most of our health service we should study our methods and their results for there is much that we need to learn.

We should not try to do too much and we should do well what we try to do.

Cooperation of Schools, Colleges, and State Departments

by Howard W. Oxley, Director of CCC Camp Education

★★★ The educational program of the Civilian Conservation Corps is a natural extension of the philosophy inherent in the work camp. Therefore, the program has tended to develop, in many cases, its own techniques and procedures. These techniques and procedures, however, are closely allied to prevailing methods obtaining in the schools and colleges, and in many phases of the program the work of the corps and the schools and colleges dovetail conveniently together.

During the 7-year life of the Civilian Conservation Corps there has developed a growing realization on the part of the officials of the corps and of the educational institutions that the two groups have a common mission. The enrollees of the corps come from the local schools and will, very largely, return to these same communities, where they will again attend school or endeavor to earn a living. There is a growing effort on the part of all concerned to discover common objectives and to work toward their accomplishment.

While the major objective of the educational program in the CCC is occupational training, there are many boys who lack only a small amount of work which would permit them to secure grammar-school certificates or to graduate from high school or college. During the month of October 1939, the latest month for which figures are available, 8,097 enrollees from the camps were attending classes in nearby schools. Seven hundred and eighty of these were receiving such facilities free of charge, while the remaining 7,317 were being provided for through the federally financed plan provided for in the budget of the CCC. Two hundred and sixty-three different schools were operating under contracts through this program. Schools adjacent to camps have provided many additional services. During the month of October 1939, 1,389 teachers from public schools were teaching courses in CCC camps.

The colleges of the country have aided the camp program in various ways. These have been chiefly: Provision of scholarship and other direct aid, furnishing of instructors, the furnishing of facilities such as shops, laboratories and libraries to enrollees, the provision of facilities and faculty for training of advisers, and the conducting of teacher-training programs for the instructors in the camps.

Exceptional Enrollee

The colleges and schools of the country have been especially alert to the needs of the exceptional enrollee. During the academic session



Checking Home Study Courses, CCC (Located at College of Forestry, Syracuse University, Syracuse, N.Y.) to See That They Are Complete Before Sending to the Enrollees Registered.

1938-39, 189 different colleges and schools granted scholarships to 763 enrollees. To date, during the current session of 1939-40, 208 different colleges and schools have granted scholarships to 640 enrollees. Civilian Conservation Corps regulations permit an enrollee to secure leave of absence without pay for the purpose of attending an institution of college grade. Many boys, however, secure discharges from the corps in order to return to school.

An example of a special type of college cooperation is found at Syracuse University where the College of Forestry furnishes personnel, space, light, heat, and janitor service to the Second Corps Area home study course program. Another type of special service is that offered by Virginia Polytechnic Institute, Blacksburg, which provides five members of its faculty as directors of research programs carried on by Third Corps Area advisers. The Universities of North Dakota, Nebraska, and Oklahoma, with the aid of WPA funds granted for the purpose, operate large-scale correspondence-school programs for CCC enrollees. Prof. E. S. Baird, of Iowa State College, Ames, heads a correspondence-course study program for camp advisers which the extension division of that college sponsors.

Many enrollees of camps closely adjacent to

colleges and universities have been enabled to carry on college work. Many have attended the regular day classes, although the majority enter evening classes. Ninety-seven enrollees were thus enabled to secure college degrees during the year 1938-39.

State departments of education early recognized the function of the Civilian Conservation Corps as a medium through which boys from families in economic straits might receive additional training. When the educational program in the camps was being inaugurated early in 1934, committees from State departments aided in the selection of personnel, courses of study, and the like. Since that time, State departments have cooperated in those phases of the work which are closely coordinated with the State programs.

The State departments have worked most closely with the corps in the following ways: Promulgation of regulations covering the granting of credit for work done in the camps, the issuance of eighth-grade-equivalency certificates and diplomas and high-school diplomas, the fostering of cooperating school arrangements. Vocational divisions in the States, utilizing George-Deen funds, have furnished teacher trainers, instructors, course materials, and the like.

(Concluded on page 192)

State Support

(Concluded from page 179)

Amount apportioned for the year, \$21,381.

(f) Tuition for nonresident high-school pupils. Not to exceed \$7 per pupil per month. Amount apportioned for the year, \$1,988,411.

(g) Teacher training in high schools. Total authorized for apportionment not to exceed \$255,000 or \$1,500 to any school. Amount for each school determined on basis of number of teachers employed for such work. Amount apportioned for the year, \$54,300.

(h) Evening schools for persons over 16 years of age who are not in attendance in regular day schools. Under rules of State board of education, State funds equal to one-half of salaries of teachers in such schools. Amount apportioned for the year, \$5,327.

(i) Summer schools for crippled children. Total authorized for apportionment \$10,000; not to exceed \$50 per pupil or \$7,000 to any one school. Amount apportioned for the year, \$7,957.

(j) School libraries. Not to exceed one-half amount expended for purchase of library books or 50 cents per pupil in average daily attendance during preceding year for the first 500 pupils and not to exceed one-fourth amount expended or 25 cents for each additional pupil. Total, \$50,230.17.¹*

(k) All others including special appropriations, rehabilitation, and adjustments. Amount apportioned for the year, \$192,859.13; total special aids apportioned (partly estimated), \$4,534,000.

III. Equalization aids

(a) In order to equalize the costs of a foundation school program among the several school districts, State equalization funds are provided to take care of the difference any school district cannot pay between the cost of such program and the proceeds of a local 30-mill² general property tax levy plus all funds which it receives from the State in general and special aids, with the exception of transportation aid. The foundation education program is defined in the law as one which costs³ \$60 per resident elementary pupil and \$100 per high-school pupil, resident or from another district for whom State tuition funds are paid, in average daily attendance. Total, \$5,514,865.64.*

(b) State funds for equalizing purposes are provided for any school district whose prop-

¹ The Minnesota law provides that when sufficient revenue is not available in the State treasury for meeting the full amount of obligations due according to the terms of the program, certain aids are to be prorated; these sums are marked in this article with an asterisk and indicate the amounts of the State's obligations. The amounts apportioned were approximately 60 percent of the obligations.

² Exceptions are made in the law to lands upon which the maximum levy for school purposes is less than 30 mills.

³ The cost of the foundation school program in unorganized territory is considered as \$1,000 per classroom unit.

erties include those exempt from local taxation to the extent of 20 percent of the district's valuation. The State funds are used in such cases to pay the loss the district suffers due to tax-exempt properties. Amount apportioned for the year, \$139,575.31; total equalization aids apportioned (partly estimated), \$3,340,000.

Grand total of State apportionments (partly estimated), \$19,814,908.



Control of Higher Education

(Concluded from page 183)

State university, the agricultural and mechanic arts college, and the woman's college. In Montana the office of chancellor, although authorized by law, is at present vacant due to the failure of the State legislature to make the necessary annual appropriation covering his salary. While not having a chancellor, the single board governing all State higher educational institutions in Mississippi is authorized to employ an executive secretary. This officer is empowered to conduct surveys, studies, and inquiries into the organization, management, and other affairs of the institutions upon a basis of which he may make recommendations to the board for changes to increase efficiency and economy in their operation.

A lump-sum appropriation is made by the State legislature to single boards to be allocated to the institutions under their control in Georgia, North Carolina, and Oregon. It will be observed that the latter three States have so unified their control as to have both an executive officer or chancellor serving directly under the single board and a plan for allocating lump-sum appropriations by the board. While the results achieved in the States where these more complete unified plans of control have been adopted cannot be fully appraised, there are evidences of positive significance. Unnecessary duplications to a large extent have been eliminated, programs coordinated, and institutional competition greatly reduced.

In summary, a strong movement has developed among the States to modify their methods of control of State higher education for the purpose of integrating the institutions within the State into a coordinated system. This consists of establishing either complete unified control under which a single board governs all the State institutions, or partial unified control whereby a single board governs institutions of certain types. Further steps have been taken in some States toward greater unification by providing for a single executive officer or chancellor of State higher education and by making lump-sum appropriations to the single board to be allocated or distributed to the institutions under its control.

Three FREC Contributions to Radio Education

The three new publications described below offer an interesting variety of helpful information for those whose interests or service are related to the rapidly expanding field of educational radio. Each is based on extensive study and research and the material presented is authoritative.



Forums on the Air

by Paul H. Sheats

A survey of radio forums throughout the Nation which shows and analyzes many techniques for forum operation. It should give valuable aid to those directing or participating in radio forums as well as to those who contemplate such a program. Price 25 cents.



Local Station Policies

by Leonard Power

The authentic and detailed story of a representative radio station, how it has developed, and its plan for successful cooperative broadcasting in its community. Broadcasters should find this study helpful. Price 15 cents.



College Radio Workshops

by Leonard Power

One of a series of reports on successful cooperative effort between broadcasters and leaders of local civic groups using radio-station facilities. The four workshops described in the report are located at Syracuse University, Indiana State Teachers College, University of Kentucky, and Drake University. All programs produced in the workshops mentioned in the report are broadcast over commercial stations. Price 15 cents.



These publications are available through the FEDERAL RADIO EDUCATION COMMITTEE, U. S. OFFICE OF EDUCATION.

SCHOOL LIFE, March 1940



EDUCATORS' BULLETIN BOARD



New Books and Pamphlets

School Safety

Checklist of Safety and Safety Education. Prepared by the Safety Education Projects of the Research Division. Washington, D. C., National Education Association of the United States, 1939. 30 p. 25 cents.

Designed to help improve the safety program in a single elementary or secondary school unit; the checklist may be used in many ways with various groups. Includes a bibliography of special interest to school administrators, for it suggests the key individuals, agencies, and national sources that may be consulted for technical advice, information, and material.

One Thousand School Fires. Boston, Mass., National Fire Protection Association (60 Batterymarch St.), 1939. 72 p. illus. 35 cents.

Emphasizes the importance of school fire safety. School fires since 1928 are tabulated according to cause, type of building, kind of school (i. e., public, private, college, etc.), causes of loss of life in school buildings, construction of buildings involved, loss per fire, room in which fire started, and the effect of automatic sprinklers.

Guidance

Guidance in Public Secondary Schools; a Report of the Public School Demonstration Project in Educational Guidance. Edited by Arthur E. Traxler. New York, N. Y., Educational Records Bureau (437 West 59th St.), 1939. 329 p. (Educational Records Bulletin no. 28.) \$2.

A demonstration of the functioning of measurement and record keeping in a guidance program at the junior-senior high school level. The project was carried out through the cooperation of seven selected centers.

The Dean of Boys in High School, His Qualifications and Functions, by Joseph Roemer and Oliver Hoover. New York, American Book Company, 1939. 94 p. \$1.

A fact-finding study of conditions and current practices. The material is organized to provide a comparison with conditions in the field of the dean of girls.

Occupational Information

Medical Occupations for Girls, Women in White, by Lee M. Klinefelter. New York, E. P. Dutton & Co., Inc., 1939. 320 p. illus. \$2.

Describes the more important medical occupations open to women, with special emphasis on the position of women in each.

Social Studies

The Future of the Social Studies. Proposals for an experimental social-studies curriculum, James A. Michener, editor. Cambridge, Mass., The National Council for the Social Studies (13 Lawrence Hall, Kirkland Street) 1939. 178 p. \$1.50.

A symposium on the social-studies curriculum, a com-

parative study of the suggestions should furnish a basis for discussion for national and local meetings during the year.

Teacher Load

The Teacher Looks at Teacher Load. Published by the Research Division of the National Education Association of the United States. Washington, D. C., 1939. p. 223-270. 25 cents, single copy. (National Education Association Research Bulletin, November 1939.)

A survey of teacher opinion, an appraisal of present teaching conditions as seen by classroom teachers themselves. The study represents a cooperative enterprise shared by the Research Division of the National Education Association and 188 affiliated local teachers organizations.

Congress on Education for Democracy

Education for Democracy. The Proceedings of the Congress on Education for Democracy, held at Teachers College, Columbia University, August 15, 16, 17, 1939. New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1939. 466 p. \$2.50.

A conference of laymen and educators devoted to the discussion of a basic problem—education for democracy.

Secondary Education—Great Britain

Great Britain. Board of Education. Report of the Consultative Committee on Secondary Education, with special reference to grammar schools and technical high schools. [Mr. Will Spens, C. B. E., chairman.] London, H. M. Stationery Office, 1939. 477 p. 3s. 6d. net.

A comprehensive report with recommendations involving many changes in the present system. The purpose of the committee was "To consider and report upon the organization and interrelation of schools, other than those administered under the Elementary Code, which provide education for pupils beyond the age of 11+; regard being had in particular to the framework and content of the education of pupils who do not remain at school beyond the age of about 16."

Business Education

A Survey of Needs and Trends in Book-keeping. Results of questionnaire published in The Balance Sheet, December 1938. Cincinnati, South-Western Publishing Co., 1939. 14 p. (Monograph 46.) Free to commercial teachers and school officials.

A tabulation and interpretation of the replies to the questionnaire showing (a) the trends in the teaching of book-keeping, (b) the criticisms of teachers, (c) the desires of teachers.

SUSAN O. FUTERER

Recent Theses

A list of the most recently received doctors' and masters' theses in education, which may be borrowed from the library of the Office of Education on interlibrary loan follows:

ARATA, MANNING N. A study of the organization and administration of the small high schools in Maine. Master's, 1939. University of Maine. 94 p. ms.

BAILEY, FRANCIS L. A planned supply of teachers for Vermont. Doctor's, 1939. Teachers College, Columbia University. 88 p.

BERGSTROM, EVELYN A. A proposed program of graduate study at Syracuse University for the prospective training supervisor. Master's, 1939. Syracuse University. 123 p. ms.

BONNEY, MERLE E. Techniques of appeal and of social control. Doctor's, 1934. Columbia University. 372 p.

BORGESON, GERTRUDE M. Techniques used by the teacher during the nursery school luncheon period. Doctor's, 1937. Teachers College, Columbia University. 214 p.

CLARKSON, GLADYS M. A survey of consumer education as given in 15 State courses of study, 1934-38. Master's, 1939. George Washington University. 61 p. ms.

CLEMENT, MATILDA. The classics through dramatics. Master's, 1939. Boston University. 223 p. ms.

DOUGLASS, HERBERT M. A study of the professional improvement of elementary teachers in service in Chautauqua and Cattaraugus Counties of New York State. Doctor's, 1938. New York University. 112 p. ms.

EGGERT, WALTER A. The legal basis and present status of short-term borrowing for school purposes. Doctor's, 1939. University of Chicago. 247 p.

FUDGE, HELEN G. Girls' clubs of national organization in the United States: their development and present status. Doctor's, 1938. University of Pennsylvania. 349 p.

GARBER, ELIZABETH L. A study of traffic accidents to children 16 years of age and under, Washington, D. C., September 21, 1935, to September 21, 1937. Master's, 1939. George Washington University. 127 p. ms.

GREENE, MAURICE M. Physiological factors in music education. Master's, 1938. Boston University. 75 p. ms.

HAGGARD, WILLIAM W. The legal basis of the organization and administration of the public schools of Illinois. Doctor's, 1937. University of Chicago. 84 p.

HALL, EGERTON E. The Negro wage earner of New Jersey. Doctor's, 1933. Rutgers University. 115 p.

JAMES, MAY H. The educational history of Old Lyme, Conn., 1635-1935. Doctor's, 1936. Yale University. 259 p.

MAXWELL, MARION B. The vocational consequences of failure to graduate from the secondary school. Master's, 1939. University of Maine. 90 p. ms.

MORRISON, VERA E. History of higher education under Maryland Protestant denominational auspices, 1780-1860. Doctor's, 1939. George Washington University. 289 p. ms.

NOTT, MILDRED. Field trips in junior business training. Master's, 1939. George Washington University. 43 p. ms.

ORMSBY, PERSIS. A survey of extracurricular activities in the high schools of eastern Connecticut. Master's, 1938. University of Maine. 56 p. ms.

SOLIS-COHEN, ROSEBUD T. A comparative study of the history program in English and American secondary schools. Doctor's, 1938. University of Pennsylvania. 198 p.

TERRELL, BERNECE E. Historical development of the public schools in Rawlins County. Master's, 1938. University of Kansas. 99 p. ms.

TIMMONS, WILLIAM M. Decisions and attitudes as outcomes of the discussion of a social problem: an experimental study. Doctor's, 1939. Teachers College, Columbia University. 106 p.

TYLER, I. KEITH. Spelling as a secondary learning: the extension of spelling vocabularies with different methods of organizing and teaching the social studies. Doctor's, 1939. Teachers College, Columbia University. 116 p.

WADE, NEWMAN A. Post-primary education in the primary schools of Scotland, 1872-1936. Doctor's, 1938. Teachers College, Columbia University. 275 p.

WILLIAMS, THOMAS C. Legal justification for Virginia public schools and the development of authority of Virginia local school boards. Master's, 1939. George Washington University. 77 p. ms.

ZIMMER, BRODER AGATHO. Changing concepts of higher education in America since 1700. Doctor's, 1938. Catholic University. 139 p.

RUTH A. GRAY



In Public Schools

Graduation Requirement

An experimental course in traffic safety for the past 2 years proved so effective in the high schools of Seattle, Wash., that it has been made a requirement for high-school graduation. The course, which includes safe driving habits, traffic laws, stopping distances, danger of carbon monoxide, and so on, is given to high-school juniors as that is the age at which most young people begin to drive. The lessons prepared and used so successfully by George W. Muench in pioneering this work have been revised and published as *A Course in Highway Safety* for use in these classes.

Issues and Problems

The Sixteenth Annual Junior High School Conference of New York University will be held on March 15 and 16, 1940. The theme of this year's conference will be: *Issues and Problems in Junior High School Education*. The conference will include a general program and numerous panel sessions. An exhibit of junior high school work in actual classrooms will be a significant feature of the conference.

High-School Forums

The *North Carolina Public-School Bulletin* reports that "the programs which Dr. Elbert K. Fretwell has been conducting with high-school students at the various district meetings of the North Carolina Education Association have emphasized the importance of the forum technique in the discussion of local problems with high-school students. Those who have attended these forum discussions have been impressed by the intelligent participation on the part of these high-school pupils.

"A number of our high schools have made provision for discussion groups. In several instances the discussion groups are designated as forum clubs. The name of the group is not important but the idea is important. Discussion groups in high school may be taken care of in one of the three following ways: 1. As a regular part of the academic program; 2. As a part of the extracurricular program; 3. In connection with other school programs designed to train for civic responsibility.

"In connection with forum groups the following suggestions may be helpful: (1) The most competent teacher in the art of promoting discussion should be placed in charge of the program; (2) the size of discussion groups should not, as a rule, exceed 75 or 100 persons; (3) the teachers of the social studies should meet with the forum groups to insure the integration of the forum

experience with the classroom work; (4) all students in the groups should be given opportunity for active participation and for free questioning of the speaker or leader."

Personality Records

Recommendations regarding personality records and reports to parents for the early elementary department of the Grand Rapids, Mich., schools have been made by committees of teachers for the school year, 1939-40. Based upon a 7-month study, the committee on personality records summarized its report under headings of values and dangers of such records, desirable record forms, and the training needed by teachers who attempt to record children's personalities. A study of current literature was supplemented with opinions of outstanding school and college people, of parents, and of business executives. The committee's conclusion favors more study, a flexible program of experimentation in keeping records, and a critical analysis of the results.

The committee on reports to parents also favored delayed decisions and more experimentation, but recommended conferences with parents or informal letters to them with a uniform method of checking procedure as a future guide in constructing a new report card. A summary of committee work is given in the form of answers to various specific aspects of three general questions: 1. What purpose should report cards serve? 2. What type of reports can best achieve these ends? 3. What should be included in a conference with or a report to parents?

One-sixth of State

"Rural agricultural school districts in Michigan have continued to increase in number until today there are 136 such districts covering a total area of 9,600 square miles—approximately one-sixth of the area of the State," says the *News of the Week*, a publication issued by the Michigan State Department of Public Instruction. "These schools have an assessed valuation of \$154,000,000. The enrollment has grown in 20 years from 920 to 45,000 pupils. There are 1,568 teachers employed in the elementary and secondary departments. Twenty-three thousand pupils are transported daily on bus routes that have gradually lengthened from 4½ to 12½ miles. Capacity bus loads have grown from 20 to 50 pupils. With continued emphasis on a broad instructional program including, in most cases, music, art, homemaking, general shop, and agriculture, the future of the rural agricultural school in Michigan is exceedingly bright."

Independent Adoptions

The State textbook law of Oregon, according to a recent issue of *Oregon Educational*

Journal, was modified by the last legislature to permit school districts under certain conditions to make independent adoption of textbooks. Three conditions were stipulated in the law: (1) The district must have as its executive school officer a person holding a superintendent's credential; (2) The local school board must adopt a resolution approving the independent adoption; and (3) A course of study for the subject for which the text is proposed must be approved by the superintendent of public instruction. In addition to this the law provides that the State board of education must prepare rules and regulations to be followed by districts making such adoption.

W. S. DEFFENBAUGH



In Colleges

Expands Music Activities

With the objective of treating music at Cornell as part of a cultural education on the same basis as the study of English literature, mathematics, or any other subject, the offerings have been expanded so that 23 courses are now being given with facilities for a major in music for the B. A., M. A., or Ph. D. degrees. This is in contrast to most large universities which have professional schools of music in the nature of conservatories or departments for the training of music teachers and concert artists.

The major emphasis aside from the scholastic one is the encouragement of a large number of students to listen to music and to participate. Many organized groups which have been developed for participation in all phases of musical activity are now at their peak. These groups include the men's glee club of 100 voices, the women's glee club of 120 voices, the Sage Chapel Choir of 115 voices, and several smaller choral groups interested in such specialized types of music as the madrigal literature. In the instrumental field there are two large cadet bands, the university symphony orchestra of 85 students with complete symphonic instrumentation, the instrumental club of 45 students, the women's string ensemble of 30 students, the string sinfonietta consisting of 30 graduate students and faculty members, and several chamber-music groups of differing instrumentation.

Christian Higher Education in 1940

This is the title of the fourth edition of the *Handbook on Christian Education*, which will be issued early in 1940. Other editions appeared in 1928, 1931, and 1934. The number of inquiries encouraged the Council of Church

Boards of Education to authorize the preparation of another edition. The editors are Gould Wickey and Ruth E. Anderson, 744 Jackson Place, Washington, D. C.

Some 300 pages in the handbook will give:

Statistics for Protestant and Catholic universities, colleges, junior colleges, theological seminaries, and religious-training schools.

Comparative statement of standards of accrediting associations.

Information concerning religious work with students, and lists of workers with students in the various denominations.

Lists of educational and religious foundations and organizations.

Data concerning the various church boards of education. These, together with the other material, will present a comprehensive view of Christian higher education in America in 1940.

WALTON C. JOHN

In Libraries

For Mutual Understanding

Librarians and publishers, at the invitation of the Department of State, assembled at the Library of Congress recently to discuss the part which books and libraries could play in effecting a better mutual understanding by the United States and the Latin-American countries of their respective cultures and creative ideas.

The first day of the conference was devoted to a description of the contributions which could be made by books, general periodicals, newspapers and scholarly and scientific journals. Specialists in Latin-American affairs presented the various factors involved in furthering better cultural relations between the Americas. On the second day, the conference divided into two discussion groups; one to consider specific problems of production and marketing of printed materials and the other to study the questions of acquisition and use.

Missouri Added

Missouri has been added to the list of States which now have an official specifically designated to further the development of school libraries. F. G. Stith has recently assumed duties as supervisor of school libraries in the Missouri Department of Public Schools.

Its Fourth Year

The Suburban School Librarians League, composed of the school librarians and teacher librarians from nine suburbs and cities near Milwaukee, is now on its fourth year. This group meets regularly twice a year to discuss mutual problems and to observe library equipment and organization. One meeting was held with the superintendents and principals of the district in order to consider jointly a

survey of libraries. Another matter under discussion has been the ways of aiding the new State school library supervisor.

Virginia Reports

In Virginia, the director of school libraries and textbooks reports that \$242,402 was expended for public-school library books during the year 1938-39, an amount seven times as great as that in 1932-33. In the allocation of the State aid library fund, the board of education arranged for a more even distribution of books to all parts of the State than ever before. According to the State director of school libraries, there are now in Virginia 128 junior and senior high schools which contain 2,000 or more volumes. It is stated also that 447 accredited junior and senior public high school libraries in the State reported a total circulation of 2,889,234 books. Of these secondary school libraries, 70 percent serve elementary pupils also, and 20 percent remain open for library service during the summer.

Indiana Survey

The Board of Education for Librarianship of the American Library Association has just published a survey of library personnel and training agencies in Indiana. Among the aspects considered are: Library services actually rendered at present; potentialities of additional library service; qualifications of the present library personnel; the number of trained librarians needed; their prospects for professional growth and advancement; and the existing Indiana training agencies for library service. On the basis of these facts and the estimated annual turn-over in library personnel, the board makes specific recommendations regarding the number and type of library training agencies needed in Indiana for all types of libraries.

Radio Tour

The book selection class of the University of Wisconsin Library School is taking the listeners of radio station WHA on a tour of America by means of books. Various sections of the United States are being depicted in a series of broadcasts prepared by the students, who are selecting for their scripts the dramatization of pertinent incidents and the reading of excerpts from novels dealing with a specific region. Requests for bibliographies prepared in connection with the broadcasts have come from schools, housewives in rural areas, women's clubs, and local libraries.

Master Catalog

The Westchester (N. Y.) Library Association announces the completion of a master catalog of the 250,000 books contained in 40 libraries of the county. By means of this union catalog, every library book in the county will be made available to all residents. Under this system of intercommunity lending, it will be possible for a person by applying at any library

to obtain a special book by mail, or after consulting the master file in the White Plains County office building to travel to the library possessing the desired volumes.

It is expected also that this pooling of resources will prevent unnecessary duplication of books and at the same time will permit specialization in certain fields without increasing the total book budget.

Role in Community Life

The latest annual report of the Albany (N. Y.) Public Library shows the role played by a modern library in the life of a community. One important activity has been the work with young people, undertaken with a view to preventing the serious decline in reading between childhood and early adulthood. Another service has been that of helping lay readers plan their study courses in parent education. Cooperation with the schools has been advanced, book lists have been prepared for teachers, and school classes brought to the library.

In addition to the regular service rendered individuals, library aid has been given to 56 different organized groups in Albany, such as boys clubs, civic and social associations, churches, and hospitals. Members of the library staff have been active on community committees and on the Council of Social Agencies.

RALPH M. DUNBAR

In Other Government Agencies

National Youth Administration

The Nation-wide program of marking and identifying airports carried on by the National Youth Administration in cooperation with the Civil Aeronautics Authority calls for the installation of standard airport range and boundary markers, standard airport corner markers, and a standard airport wind sock at all airports and landing areas where such facilities are not already available, on condition that a public agency sponsor the projects. The equipment will be made in NYA workshops by needy youth working under supervision, provided that the sponsoring agency furnishes the necessary raw materials. Much of the installation work will be done by NYA youth with the technical assistance of CAA representatives and local airport personnel.

* * *

Charles Allen Prosser, one-time head of the Federal Board for Vocational Education, has been appointed consultant on vocational work to the National Youth Administration. Dr. Prosser will advise the NYA on further development and betterment of its work program for out-of-school unemployed youth, which now employs nearly 300,000, and the NYA student work program which employs about 450,000 high-school and college students.



Buffalo Hunt by Velino Herrera—Mural in the New Interior Department Building.

Office of Indian Affairs

Six young Indian artists, all of whom attended Indian Service schools, are under contract to paint the murals in the cafeteria and recreation room of the New Department of the Interior Building. The Buffalo Hunt, one of the murals in the recreation room, is shown on this page.

Department of Commerce

A plan of cooperation with University Schools of Business and Bureaus of Business Research and the Department of Commerce has been announced by Harry L. Hopkins, Secretary of Commerce, as part of his program to vitalize the services of Government to business.

Coordination of the Department's research program with those of the University Schools of Business was agreed upon in a conference between Commerce Department officials and a committee of deans representing the Conference of State University Schools of Business.

In the voluntary cooperative program contemplated, the following steps will be taken:

(1) To increase the availability of existing business research facilities by ascertaining what facilities are now available, what research projects are now in progress, and by setting up a clearing house in the Department of Commerce for business research activities throughout the Nation.

(2) To strengthen the business research program of the Department and of the University Schools of Business by establishing, whenever possible, cooperative arrangements on specific studies, and by utilizing the part- or full-time services of trained research personnel from the universities whenever available.

(3) To reduce duplication of effort and thereby promote economy and efficiency in business research.

(4) To encourage decentralization of research projects and to make regional and local research more effective by having it done in the universities by local men familiar with local conditions, at the same time making

available to the local research workers information on new techniques and methods developed by the Department of Commerce and by universities.

(5) To aid the small business man by making available to him a closer source of information on conditions affecting his business.

MARGARET F. RYAN



Cooperation

(Concluded from page 187)

A recent survey of the 48 States and the District of Columbia indicates that 40 States and the District recognize work done in the camps and have promulgated special regulations in cooperation with the administrative divisions of the corps governing the accrediting of this work. Typical cooperative arrangements are those of Kentucky and New Mexico, which are illustrated by the following regulations which are here quoted in summary.

KENTUCKY—"Credit for High-School Subjects Completed in Civilian Conservation Camps.

"When the educational adviser of any Civilian Conservation Corps camp certifies that an enrollee has completed satisfactorily one or more high-school subjects, the enrollee may be given credit for same, provided he passes an examination given by the teacher of such subject or subjects in an accredited high school. In the event that the enrollee passes such examinations successfully, the credit or credits given for such subject or subjects may be recognized by the high schools of this Commonwealth."

NEW MEXICO—"Upon completion of the course of study for eighth-grade students, CCC enrollees may take the examination prescribed by the county school superintendent of the county in which the CCC camp is located. Upon recommendation of the county superintendent, eighth grade diplomas are granted these boys through the State department of education."

Under the authority of such regulations issued by the respective States, 5,176 enrollees received eighth-grade certificates and 1,048 enrollees received high-school diplomas during the year 1938-39.

Certain States furnish special types of aid which are worthy of mention. The New York Department contributes 14 instructors to the home study course program conducted by the Second Corps Area. The State Department of Massachusetts carries on the teacher-training program for all the camps of that State. New Jersey has established three special teacher-training centers for the camps of the State. In Virginia, 28 instructors are furnished by the division of trade and industrial education.

The State Department of Pennsylvania contributes \$8,200 for the support of vocational training centers for enrollees in six Pennsylvania high schools. South Carolina furnishes one teacher for illiteracy removal to each camp in the State. The State Department of Education of Georgia, through its vocational division, has made available one full-time agriculture teacher for work in the camps of the State.

The State Department of California established the correspondence course program for the Ninth Corps Area, and continues to provide funds for its personnel and operation. In addition, the State has extended the operation of its Union high-school law to the camps. Under this arrangement, a particular camp is recognized as a branch of the nearest school. The State department reimburses the school for the average daily attendance of the enrollees. In this way, work in general education is closely integrated with the public-school system of the State.

The cooperation of the schools and colleges of the country and of the State departments of education has contributed greatly to the efforts of the Civilian Conservation Corps to organize and continually strengthen its program and to enable that program to take its place in coordination with the other major youth-training institutions of the Nation.